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ABSTRACT

This volume of the "TESOL Newsletter" contains a number of articles of general information to teachers including articles on the following topics: teacher training and evaluation; an overview of English as a second language (ESL) teaching today and thoughts about its future; teacher certification; teaching methods; an excerpt from a longer poem on English teaching; and the preparation of papers for oral presentation. Practical teaching considerations and techniques are presented in articles on the teaching of grammar, reading, communication strategies, writing, and English for Special Purposes. Other articles discuss ESL testing practices, computer assisted instruction, sociological aspects of teaching, teaching the refugee, Standard English as a second dialect, and the problem of teaching culture in the classroom. (Author/AMH)

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TESOL Newsletter

Volume XV, Numbers 1-6 (February, April, June, August, October, and December) 1981

Edited by John F. Haskell

Volume XV contains a number of articles of general information to teachers including articles on teacher training and evaluation by Rubin and Henze, (2/81), Gregor, (2/81), Cortez, (8/81), Martinez-Bernal (8/81) and Hepworth and Krahnke, (10/81). Richard Orem's excellent article "Entering the 80's" is an overview of ESL teaching today and offers some thoughts about where it should be heading. Gina Harvey brings us up to date on certification in her article of 4/81. On the lighter side, Imhoof and Finocchiaro under the pen name of Clea Shay, suggest we consider "The Timbuktu Method" (4/81), and Michael Skupin's longer poem "A Dialogue in Verse Concerning English Teaching" is excerpted in the December issue. The preparation of papers for oral presentation is discussed by Kaplan (12/81).

Practical teaching considerations and techniques are presented in articles on the teaching of grammar by Yassin (2/81), Soudek (12/81), and Singer (12/81). Reading techniques are dealt with in articles by Larson and Fragiadakis (4/81), Doubleday (8/81), Kalnitz and Judd (10/81), Krashen (12/81) and O'Neill and Qazi (12/81). Communication strategies are developed by Christison and Krahnke (4/81), Datta (4/81), McConochie (4/81), Steinberg (8/81), Larson and Sage (8/81), and in articles by Thompson, Larson and Yorkey, and Reitman (12/81). Writing techniques are suggested by McKay (8/81) and Larson and Yorkey (10/81). English for Special Purposes is dealt with in articles by Byrd and West (4/81) and Griswold (12/81).

ESL testing practices are discussed by Nicholson (2/81) and by Virginia Allen (8/81), and Reitman (12/81) discusses computer assisted instruction.

Sociological aspects of teaching are dealt with in revealing articles about China by Wang (2/81), Ying (8/81) and Bean (12/81), and about such diverse teaching areas as the refugee (Kremer, 12/81) and Standard English as a Second Dialect (Anderson, 12/81). The problem of teaching culture in the classroom are dealt with in articles by Delamere and Jenks (12/81) and Magrath (12/81).

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TESOL

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES

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TESOL NEWSLETTER

Vol. XV No. 1 Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages February 1981

MY VISIT TO THE U.S.A.

Wang Nianmei
Lanzhou University

It is already six months since I came back to Lanzhou, but I am still often haunted by the vivid recollections of the days spent in the U.S.A. So I'd like to take this opportunity to say something about my visit to the U.S.A.

1. Before Starting Off

To tell the truth, I had never thought that I would have a chance to visit the United States until the beginning of this year. So when I was informed that I would be sent to attend the 14th International TESOL Convention, I simply couldn't believe my ears. You can hardly imagine how excited I was in those days. I felt very lucky that I would have such a rare chance to visit the USA. I was especially happy to have Prof. Blatchford as my good teacher and friend whom I could rely upon for help throughout my journey. But at the same time I was still worried very much about my English proficiency. I was afraid that I would not be able to live up to the expectations of my colleagues. It was with such mixed feelings that I went on board the plane bound for Beijing.

2. What Impressed Me Most During My Stay in the U.S.A.

I was a little nervous about how I would get along with Americans as the wide-bodied 747 was landing at San Francisco. But the smiling faces, warm greetings of Americans I met and their willingness to offer me help soon made me relax and feel at ease. I found that they were more friendly to me than I had expected.

Prof. Blatchford did everything he could to make me feel comfortable. He introduced me to a lot of his friends. They went with me to workshops, colloquia or mini-courses for company. I was also kindly invited to his close friends' homes and to have dinner with them. Wherever I went, I was given a cordial welcome.

It happened that a team sent by the Foreign Experts Bureau also came to attend the TESOL Convention. It was at Prof. Blatchford's insistence that I gained the chance to join them in visiting different institutions in Washington and New York and make the acquaintance of many prominent persons in the field of TESOL. With his help I felt very happy and at home, though I was more than ten thousand miles from my motherland.

Dr. Alatis, the Executive Secretary of TESOL and Dean of the School of Languages and Linguistics of Georgetown University, spared no efforts to take good care of us. It was very thoughtful of him to make the necessary arrangements for us. We were several times accorded cordial receptions and invited to dinner by him. I owe a great deal to him for his friendliness and generous help.

At the opening session of the TESOL Convention Dr. Alatis warmly welcomed us Chinese in his formal speech. All the participants of the Convention greeted us with warm applause. A group of dancers were invited to the ballroom to perform a traditional Chinese lion dance before the opening session. The cheers of the jubilant crowds mingled with the beating of drums and gongs. The hall was immersed in a friendly festival atmosphere. I will never forget this exciting moment. At the banquet given in the Empress Restaurant in Chinatown in San Francisco our team leader, the Vice-Director of the Foreign Experts Bureau and Prof. Deng from the Beijing Foreign Languages Institute were honoured by having their seats at the head table and all the other members of the team, including me, were also treated as distinguished guests.

I was also very happy to see that the American people were very much interested in China. There were so many applicants who wanted to come to China to help upgrade our teachers of English that sometimes they lined up outside the recruiting office room waiting for interviews with the team. Everywhere people

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FIFTEENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

March 3–8, 1981 • Detroit, Michigan

MY VISIT TO THE U.S.A.

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stretched out their hands of friendship to me and expressed their desire to make friends with me. I was greatly moved by their friendly feeling to us Chinese.

All I experienced in the U.S.A. makes me convinced that the tree of friendship between our two peoples has already deeply taken root in their hearts. What we should do is to take good care of it and water it to make it put forth beautiful blossoms.

3. What We Should Learn From The American People

(1) Efficiency and enthusiasm for work

The thirty-story Hilton Hotel in San Francisco was very much like a huge hive. Thousands of participants of the TESOL Convention were as busy as bees from early in the morning till late at night. They hurried here and there and tried to attend as many lectures as possible. About thirty workshops, colloquia and mini-courses were going on in different ballrooms and parlors at the same time. Lively conversations and heated arguments could be heard everywhere during coffee breaks—in the corridors, on the escalators or in front of the lifts. People kept pouring into the Franciscan Room and Hilton Plaza, attracted by numerous interesting books on display. Newsletters were published every day. Obviously the participants in the Convention loved their own work. They were interested in every new development in the field of TESOL and keen to draw inspiration from others' experience. At the same time, they were also glad to share their own views and thoughts with others.

We were told that about four thousand people attended the Convention. You can easily imagine what an arduous task it was to organize all the activities for the convention. Everything was carried on methodically, in a planned way. So I was greatly surprised when I learned that most people who made all the arrangements for the Convention worked on a volunteer basis. I could not help admiring their enthusiasm and efficiency in work.

This effective way of working could be seen everywhere. Let me take Mrs. Johanson for example. As a secretary of Dr. Alatis, she organized interviews, answered telephone calls, handled day-to-day work, typed letters and documents, made all kinds of helpful suggestions, worked as a tour guide for us and even gave a dinner for us in her home. She was full of energy and dealt with her work ably. She always offered Dr. Alatis timely help when necessary.

I never saw people idling about in their work hours. Waiters in restaurants, shop assistants in department stores or attendants in hotels all seemed to have a good knowledge about their jobs. They served customers well and were warm and polite towards them. Why shouldn't we learn from the American people their enthusiasm and efficiency in work and good attitude in attending to customers?

(2) Initiative and dynamic spirit

I was deeply impressed by the large number of papers with substantial content present at the TESOL Convention. But the active response of the audience to each talk made a still deeper and indelible impression on me. I was amazed to find that they were quite different from us. They were never content with just listening. They were always asking questions, making comments, and airing their different points of view. So the presentation of each paper was followed by a free and lively discussion. In our country the audience at any meeting usually confines its role to just listening. We don't like or sometimes dare not express different opinions in public. I believe we should learn from the American people their frankness and enterprising spirit.

(3) A country full of variety

The U.S.A. is a country full of variety. Ancestors of the American people came from different countries. And even now people from all parts of the world are still coming here continuously. So you can easily see people with different complexions on the street. This variety finds its full expression in San Francisco. Not only did I have the chance to eat Beijing duck in Chinatown, but I could also taste spaghetti in a Spanish cafeteria and Italian pizza at a friend's home. I went to a Mexican restaurant too, where I had a hot burrito for my lunch. Once I was very much puzzled by the names of French dishes. Only with the help of Prof. Deng did I make out the menu and succeed in ordering my food. I was glad to find that typical American dishes such as beefsteak and fried prawns also agreed with me.

The American people like festivities. They have a bright and cheerful disposition. It seemed to me that there were many more festivals in the U.S.A. than in our country. While I was in San Francisco, Chinese Americans happened to celebrate their Spring Festival. One night, there was a mammoth parade in Chinatown. The dragon dances and beautiful Chinese national costumes exerted a strong fascination on all the spectators. It was said that the streets in Chinatown were crowded with about 300,000 curious citizens and tourists that night.

When I was in New York, I saw Irishmen celebrating their St. Patrick's Day. Wearing green clothes and holding green balloons in their hands, they marched along the streets. Lots of pedestrians stopped walking, attracted by the colourful sight of the parade. When I went to LaGuardia Community College, the American host gave me a lovely green flower as a St. Patrick's Day gift.

The day before I left the U.S.A. I went sightseeing with a group of Chinese electronic experts. It was a nice sunny day. The sky was very clear and spring breezes were blowing. We were surprised to see that there were so many people around the Washington Monument. I was especially fascinated at watching lovely children on the grass. They were all flying kites. All the kites were very beautiful. Some of them looked like butterflies, others like eagles, dragons and so on. Light music was being sent out through loudspeakers. That day turned out to be Kite Day in Washington. We were told that the kites which were most beautiful and flew the highest would be awarded a prize.

I couldn't help thinking that the great number of festivals was probably another reflection of the variety of American society. Why don't we diversify our life and make it richer and more colourful?

(4) Independent and industrious

Once I was invited to an American friend's home. Their house was located in the suburbs of Washington. This was a well-to-do middle-class family. The father was a professor at a university. The mother was an activist in the local American-Chinese Friendship Association. What struck me most was their way of educating their children. Two elder sons study at two private universities. Their youngest son studies at a high school. To my great surprise, he gets up at three o'clock every morning and drives a car to deliver newspapers. He earns $400 each month by working as a newsboy. Can't the parents afford their youngest son? No, not at all. The father told me that the fuel the boy used cost much more than $400. Then what were the parents up to? They tried this way to train their son to be independent and industrious. They also told me that both their elder sons work during the summer vacations to earn some money to support themselves. In fact, most American students work their way through college. In a competitive society like the U.S.A. how can a young man expect to achieve success without extreme diligence and tenacious struggle? In our country quite a few young people are spoiled by their parents of position. I don't believe that those who are accustomed to depend on their parents' power and influence will be able to keep pace with the rapid development of our society. Can't we learn something from these American parents?

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MY VISIT TO THE U.S.A.

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4. Machine Age

The U.S.A. is a highly developed rich country. This was no longer an abstract concept for me as soon as I set foot on the soil of the country. I saw with my own eyes what profound changes the progress of science and technology had brought to the daily life of the American people.

Telephones are available everywhere. You can make telephone calls either on the streets or at your home. People use them to order their seats at a restaurant, make reservations for their journey, and make appointments with their friends. In a word, the telephone has become a very helpful companion of every common American.

I was also amazed at the popularity and efficiency of copy machines. Electronic computers have come into wide use at airports, in libraries and offices. I was especially interested in the self-service machines which provide people with different drinks. And I felt as happy as a child when I got a can of orange juice by putting thirty cents into the machine.

What struck me most were the long streams of cars on the streets. It seems to me that cars are as indispensable to the Americans as bicycles are to us Chinese. As most Americans live far away from where they work and public transportation is not as developed as in China, they rarely, if ever, go to their offices or go shopping on foot. I can hardly imagine how an American is able to manage if he has no car at all.

The housing conditions of the American people are much better than ours. Not only do they have larger living space, but their houses are also provided with lots of modern conveniences. I had a good chance to visit some American friends' homes. Most of them live in two-story houses with garages and small gardens. Usually each child has his own bedroom with a bathroom and a closet attached, no matter how little he may be. All rooms, whether they are a sitting room, dining room, family room or study, are well furnished and air-conditioned. Whichever family I visited, the hostess would show me with pride her kitchen. There are so many machines in the kitchen: electric stove, microwave oven, dishwasher, refrigerator, garbage compressor and so on. What a great change has taken place in the daily life of an American family. When I thought of the time I have to spend doing housework, I couldn't help envying my American hostesses for their modern conveniences.

I liked the subway in San Francisco, which is called BART. BART—the Bay Area Rapid Transit—as a matter of fact, is composed of one-third subway, one-third elevated, and one-third ground-level track. It is not only quick, but it is also very cheap. What's more, I felt it much safer to travel by BART. I was sure I wouldn't get lost on BART. There is a map at the entrance of each station. And the destination of each train lights up when any train comes into the station. So it is impossible for a passenger to get the direction wrong. Anybody, so long as he can read English, may get anywhere he wants to go under his own steam.

BART is operated completely by electronic computers. There is neither ticket-collector at the station nor conductor on the train. When you deposit some coins in a machine, you will receive a ticket. Then you insert the ticket in an entrance turnstile, and the door opens to let you in. But don't forget to get the ticket from another slot, because you have to put the ticket in an exit turnstile when you get to the destination station. Otherwise you will not be allowed to get out. The electric train goes smoothly. Doors open and close automatically. When the train reaches the bay, it plunges into a four-mile-long tube, which snakes under the bay. At that time you'll feel that air pushes against your ear membrane, the same feeling a passenger usually experiences when an airplane is taking off or landing. But it is still much more comfortable and faster to travel by BART than to crawl along in bumper-to-bumper traffic on the toll-bridge.

In a word, machines are an indispensable part of every American's life. He would find it hard to imagine what life could be like without machines.

5. What The Americans Worry About

The U.S.A. is a beautiful country richly endowed by nature. I was often fascinated by various woods and green meadows there. The American people benefit from good weather conditions and rich natural resources of the country. The U.S.A. is also a highly-developed power with modern industry and agriculture. The American people enjoy all the conveniences provided by their advanced science and technology. So generally speaking, they live a more comfortable life than we do.

But apart from all these advantages, I found that there was still some things Americans are worried about.

(1) Energy crisis

As oil has been in rather short supply recently due to the tense situation in the Middle East and the price of oil has been going up rapidly, the American people are very much worried about the energy crisis. The automobile industry is especially seriously affected by the energy crisis. So everybody is concerned about the way to economize the consumption of oil and the development of new sources of energy.

(2) Two-digit inflation is another problem that troubles the American people. It makes some of them feel uncertain about their future. It is not easy for a woman to be a good homemaker in the U.S.A. She must do careful calculation and strict budgeting to avoid overdrawing her account. Though a middle-class American earns about $20,000-$25,000 a year, one-third of the money is spent on housing. Nearly another third, or at least a quarter of his income, goes in taxes. Tuition fees for private schools are very high and medical care is unbelievably expensive. So everyone has to spend his money very carefully.

(3) Problems of old people

Though people in the U.S.A. get pensions when they retire and there are some organizations which try to help aged people, it still seems to me that old people have a hard time. They are lonely and pitiful. Their own children usually don't live with them and can't take care of them when they are sick.

(4) The automobile—a mixed blessing

While cars have brought better and more convenient transportation, they have also brought new and unforeseen problems. Traffic accidents are increasing steadily and large cities are plagued by traffic congestion, especially at rush hour. Worst of all is the air pollution caused by the internal-combustion engine. Another trouble is that there isn't enough space for parking cars in big cities. Let me give you an example. One day Prof. Choseed invited me to a dinner at the Georgetown University dining-room. But when we got there, he couldn't find a place to park his car. Afraid of being fined by a policeman, he had to drive his car slowly round and round the campus until he heaved a sigh of relief when he saw a car that was going to leave a parking meter. I can still remember clearly the regretful expression on an American lady's face when she told me that she had got a parking ticket the day before and a fine of fifty dollars had been imposed on her. So it turns out, progress has more than one face.

6. Culture Shock

You might be interested in whether I met some difficulties during my stay in the United States. Now let me tell you something about culture shock.

(1) Fast pace of life and fast speed of speech

My schedule was so crowded that it seemed to me that everything went very fast. I usually worked from morning till night. No naps, no rest. It was not easy for me to get used to the fast pace of life in the U.S.A.

I worried very much about my communicative competence before I left

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China. I was glad to find that I could make myself understood and also make out what Americans said to me in most cases. But I had to admit at the same time there's still a long, long way to go to improve my language proficiency.

Most participants at the TESOL Convention were Americans and the time for each report was limited. So all the speakers spoke very fast. I found it was very hard for me to adapt myself to such a fast speed of speech. Besides, my limited vocabulary and unfamiliarity with certain subjects and background also prevented me from comprehending some of the reports adequately. Once I went to a play at the invitation of Prof. Blatchford. I felt frustrated because I often couldn't figure out what the actors' jokes meant while others all laughed till the tears came.

Abbreviations are widely used, which are another hard nut for me to crack. I don't think my memory is very poor. But I frequently had to apologize for failing to learn the names of a large number of American friends.

(2) Troubles caused by machines

When I arrived in San Francisco, the telephone saved me. It was with the help of the telephone that I made contact with the consulate of our country and learned the way to the Saint Francis Hotel. But it was also the telephone that brought me the first trouble.

It was very easy to find the telephone booths at the airport. But it took me more than half an hour to get through. Why? First, without coins one can't make a telephone call. And I had no coins and no idea about where to get change. Secondly, I didn't know how much a telephone call from the airport to the Saint Francis Hotel cost. So I couldn't decide how many and which coins I should put in the telephone. Thirdly, I didn't know how to use an automatic telephone. Finally, I didn't know what to do when I heard the warning buzzing. So I tried twice but failed to get through. I was racked with anxiety. I was completely at a loss. What to do? Luckily a kind middle-aged lady come to me and helped me out. But I was already wet with sweat.

The next day Prof. Blatchford showed me how to get change from a change machine. I was very happy because I always like to try something new. One day later, I came to BART. "Let me have a try," I thought. In a hurry I inserted a five-dollar bill into a machine. But to my disappointment, no coins came out. What's more, the bill was stuck in the machine and I couldn't get it back. I was upset and tried to find someone to help me. But since BART is operated by electronic computers, there were no clerks at the station at all. I didn't know whom to ask for help. Fortunately, an electrical engineer happened to be passing by. Seeing that I was caught in a dilemma, he gave me a hand and I got the bill back. He explained to me that the machine I had put the bill in was a ticket machine. What a blunder I had made! "I must be very careful with all the machines from now on," I said to myself.

(3) Tipping and taxes

We never tip anybody in our country. But it is very impolite if you forget to tip a taxi-driver or a waitress in a restaurant. I found it hard to get used to the tipping system. I am not good at mental arithmetic. So sometimes it seemed to me a heavy burden to figure out within a few seconds how much I had to pay for a tip.

Tax is another problem. Once I went to a supermarket. A price tag showed that two cassette tapes cost $2.99. "That's not too expensive," I thought. "I'll take them." But when I came to the check-out stand, the clerk told me that they cost $3.17. I got confused. It turned out that in addition to the price of the tapes I had to pay 6% tax.

Anyway, in spite of the culture shock I came across, my trip to the United States was successful. It has made a lasting and exciting impression on me. I have learned a lot about the teaching of English in the U.S.A., about the American people, about the American culture, which cannot possibly be learned in our country. But I still feel sorry that my stay in the United States was too short. I would have learned more if the time of 25 days had been longer. I hope that more comrades among us will have the chance to visit the U.S.A. and stay there longer.

IATEFL International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

16 Alexandra Gardens, Hounslow, Middlesex, England TW3 4HU.

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TEACHING ENGLISH VERB-PARTICLE COMBINATIONS

by M. Aziz F. Yassin
United Arab Emirates University

Verb-Particle Combinations (V-PCs)

English has a continual need to make up new verbs. One of the most common ways of making up new verbs in the Indo-European languages has been to fuse a verb stem and particle to make a new verb. In Latin, the particle was attached to the beginning of the verb. Here are some examples of verbs made in this way that have come into English:

compel Lat *com* "with, together"
+ *pellō* "drive, force"
devour Lat *de* "down, from"
+ *vorō* "swallow"
exceed Lat *ex* "out"
+ *cedō* "Go away, withdraw"

Many English verbs are made up with particles prefixed in the Latin manner, for example:

bypass, overestimate, downplay, overlook, forget, understand, upset, offset, withdraw, withstand, overcome.

However, most English V-PCs are made with the particle used as a suffix rather than as a prefix, e.g.

go for, bring round, fall for, run down, walk into, bear out, get over, give up, keep up with, look up, look up to, make for, make up for, make up to, put off, put up with, stand down, stand for, stand up for, stand up to, turn in, turn on, turn out.

V-PCs are mainly colloquial; that is they appear first as slang or part of a specialized technical jargon. If the combinations withstand the passage of time, they become an unobjectionable part of the English vocabulary.

Semantic Spreading Out

Bolinger (1971, p. 33) argues that we have to use what he calls a "kind of semantic spreading out". That is, V-PCs are frequently used in preference to verbs of classical origin which have similar meanings but unsuitable overtones of formality, pomposity or difficulty. Instead of placing a fat bundle of semantic features into one word, matters can be more flexible by packing thinner bundles into two or three or more words. In other words, he would prefer *spreading* rather than *overloading*, for example:

He *discarded* the trash. (overloading)
He *threw out* the trash. (spreading)
He *estimated* the situation and *provided* figures. (overloading)
He *sized up* the situation and *gave out* figures. (spreading)

Problems of Teaching V-PCs

Arab ESL students are introduced to V-PCs at a later stage of learning English. During the early stages, they are taught that certain recurring segments possess unique and constant meanings. They are taught, for instance, that certain monosyllabic verbs such as *go, bring, come, fall, run, turn, walk* are verbs of movement, and that certain other verbs have core meanings attached to them, e.g.

to squeeze = to press on; get (water, juice) out of something
to salt = to add salt to food
to shut = to close
to act = to do something
to build = to erect

Particles such as:

for, up, away, down, across, to, out, over, with, on, etc., are also taught as separate words with core meanings attached to them.

This tendency of learning 'separate' words is reinforced by the fact that ESL activities in many parts of the Arab world are basically text-book centered. Students are, therefore, introduced first to written modes of English characterized by what Bolinger describes as 'overloading'. Arab students learn verbs such as:

to extinguish, to encounter, to corroborate, to compensate, etc., before they are introduced to simpler synonyms such as: *put out, run up against, bear out,* and *make up for.*

When the Arab learner is introduced to a V-PC such as *go for*, he tries to deduce the meaning of the whole from the sum of the meanings of the component parts which he has learnt as separate segments. In an utterance like:

He went for a walk.

the Arab learner will find no trouble as the component parts *go* and *for* keep what he has learnt as their 'basic' meanings. But trouble begins when he reads *go for* in the following various linguistic contexts:

—In investing money some people *go for* (aim at; have an objective) a more or less assured dividend, others for capital increase.
—I let him have his say, and then I *went for* him (attacked) and told him just what I thought.
—What I've said about this person *goes for* (applies to) anyone else whom I find tresspassing on my land.

The Arab learner will be overwhelmed by the multiplicity of meanings of V-PC *go for*, none of which relates to the meanings of the individual parts. Similar multiple meanings for the 'same' V-PC are suggested by *put-up*:

—I'll *put* you *up* (accommodate) for the weekend.
—They *put* me *up* to the situation. (gave me an idea)
—I can't *put up* with (tolerate) his misbehaviour.
—I'll *put up* (propose) your name for the football team.

Classification of V-PCs

The 'neutral' term 'particle' has been adopted to designate both adverbs and prepositions. This approach derives from Mitchell's (1958, p. 103) classification of particle verbs:

"It is the word-class approach that explains the tendency, . . . to regard the particle component of the English phrasal verb as either a preposition or an adverb rather than as one grammatical piece with the verbal component."

Mitchell distinguishes two main categories: 'phrasal' and 'prepositional' to which we may add a third: the 'copula + particle'.

1. *Phrasal Verbs*

Phrasal verbs have the following features:

a) The particle can be either pre- or post-nominal, e.g.
He put (on) his coat (on).
He called (up) her parents (up).
He made (up) the story (up).
The company turned (down) the offer (down).
It puts (out) a lot of news (out).

The separability of the particle from the verb itself is a purely formal matter, with no effect on meaning. If the object is long, however, it can come only after the particle:

It puts out a lot of news that you don't see anywhere else.

Phrasal verbs with two or more particles must occur in pre-nominal position:

The children *talked back to* their mother.
John *came up with* an idea.
Everyone *looked down on* them.
They *walked out on* us.

b) Pronouns usually precede the particle:
They made *it* up.
The company turned *it* down.

The habitual placing of the pronoun befor the particle is explained by Erades (1961) as being generally due to their (i.e. the pronouns) weak stress.

c) Adverbs cannot intervene between the verb and particle. We can say:
He *turned up* at seven o'clock, and
We *took off* for Memphis, but not

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*He turned *suddenly* up at seven o'clock,
or
*We took *immediately* off for Memphis.

d) The particle component can be, and generally is, fully stressed:

The pilot flew in the plane.
The pilot flew the plane in.
She tried on the dress.
She tried the dress on.

e) When final and not in post-nominal position, the particle is pronounced on a kinetic tone. Strang (1962, p. 159) suggests that one should think in terms of "a complex of related differences (a superfix) part stress, part rhythm, part intonation."

2. *Prepositional Verbs*

Prepositional verbs have the following features:

a) Non-interpolability of (pro)nouns between verb and particle:
He *turned down* the driveway.
(V + P)
He *turned down* the offer.
(Phrasal Verb)
He *turned* the offer *down*.
(Phrasal Verb)

This change is impossible with the preposition:

*He *turned the* driveway *down*.

b) *Expansion:* A verb-preposition combination can be divided by an adverb, but a verb-adverb combination cannot, for example:

He *turned up* (discovered) a new manuscript. (Phrasal Verb)
He *turned* (sharply) *up* the country road.
(V + P)

c) A single verb is often commutable with a prepositional verb. This criterion covers such a wide range of possibilities (*go down* = descend, *ask for* = request) that it can provide no reliable indication of the degree of V-P linkage.

There are a few criteria not referred to by Mitchell which have been made use of by other grammarians to distinguish phrasal and non-phrasal verbs. Grammarians note that phrasal verbs, as opposed to prepositional verbs, cannot undergo a relative transformation with the particle detached from the verb and preceding the relative pronoun:

They *came across* the bridge.
The bridge *across* which they *came*.
(V + P)
They *came across* the man.
but not *The man *across* whom they *came*.
(Phrasal Verb)

But compare:

*Up he turned. *Off he took.

It appears that some prepositional verbs, and notably those with close V-P linkage, share the restrictions of phrasal verbs in their behaviour under relative transformation.

Another criterion, not mentioned by Mitchell, is that of 'substitution'. A word is an adverbial extension when it forms such a unit with the verb that this unit can be replaced by one single verb without any change occurring in the structural arrangement of the utterance, for example:

bring round = persuade
fall for = love
run down = defame
keep up with = keep level with
look up = verify (by reference to books or documents)
look up to (someone) = admire
make off with = steal
make up for = compensate
make up to = attempt to curry favour with
stand down = withdraw (from a contest)
stand for = represent
stand up for = support (morally or verbally)
stand up to = oppose
turn in = go to bed
turn on = attack
turn out = expel

However, many other combinations may be replaced by a single verb:

look at = examine
go before = precede

The restriction that 'the structural arrangement of the utterance' should not be changed is semantic—the meaning of the whole utterance will still remain unchanged. The substitution criterion is also used to demonstrate that prepositional verbs are in some cases to be treated as units.

Where the same particle is used both as an adverb and as a preposition, it is often difficult to distinguish between them. Three guidelines are:

a) The adverb can stand alone whereas the preposition cannot, e.g. Come in! Go out!, etc.
b) Prepositions with an accompanying noun form a phrase which in itself makes sense, e.g. up the road, under the table, through the door, etc. When the particle is used as an adverb the phrase can't make sense by itself, e.g. (put) down his hat, (turn) off the tap, etc.
c) The adverb and the noun accompanying it can change positions, e.g. He put (on) his coat (on).

3. *Copula Verbs + Particles*

The distinction between lexical verbs and copula verbs has led to a great deal of discussion about the function of *be* when followed by particles or prepositional phrases. Jesperson writes (1949, III, 17) that "some verbs when connected with predicatives tend to lose their full meaning and approach the function of an empty link." Among his examples of predicatives he includes:

he is in good health,
the rain is over.

On the other hand, particles and prepositional phrases are adverbial after *be* "when the verb has a full meaning" (III, 18). For example:

—I mean they*'re after* the news. (be + P + N)
—The red one *was for* scrambling.
—The joke's *over* now. (be + preposition)
—. . .we'd thrown our hands in without telling one another we knew the game *was up*.
—. . .and a man said, 'What*'s up*?'
—The dividend *is up* by 3 per cent to 18 per cent.
—Next morning, John *was up* early.
—They *are in* for pretty poor service. (be+preposition+preposition+noun)
—He *was off to* sea again.
—We *are out to better* ourselves. (be+P+to-infinitive)

Jesperson often compares predicative P and P-N with adjectives and regards them as subject modifiers rather than verb modifiers. Compare:

But all the articles are *of great value*,
But all the articles are *beautiful and of great value*.

Also, the copula *seem* can replace *be*:

But all the articles *seem of great value*.
Be + P + N can be premodified by very, more or most:
—Conservative supporters *were* more *in favour* of the retention of public schools than Labour supporters.

Be + P: Examples belonging to this group are of the same structure as phrasal verbs; that is, they are made up of a verb followed by a particle:

—*There were few people about* in the wet windy night and little traffic.
—*There were few people about* the town.
Compare with:

—So *after all was over*, I . . ., in which the particle cannot be expanded.
Grammatical vs. Lexical Restrictions on the Particle Component:

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The verbal component cannot function without the particle:

—Mme Nhu came to the US . . . complaining that US aid had *petered out.*
—. . .if your own conscience is clear, then the village or city can *gossip its head off.*

The particles *out* and *off* in the immediately preceding examples cannot under any consideration be left out. If they are omitted, the resulting sentences will be grammatically deviant. The restrictions on *peter out* and *gossip its head off* are, therefore, 'grammatical restrictions', as opposed to 'lexical restrictions' on *shot (down)* in: They *shot (down)* the prisoner.

Meaning of the Particle Component:

It is sometimes possible to assign some kind of meaning to the particle in a phrasal verb. In the utterances:

—I'm *typing* it up now, *typing up* the final copy,
—The theatre is *booked up,*

the particle *up* has the function of specifying, finalizing or suggesting completeness.
Similarly, the particles *out* and *off* have a meaning of their own when they occur with certain kinds of verbs. *Out* is used with verbs dealing with the interior of something; *off* is related to the exterior:

—The car needs to be cleaned

$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{out (Use a vacuum)}\\ \text{off (Use a hose)}\end{array}\right\}$$

Figurative vs. Literal V-PCs

One way of differentiating:

—the light *went out* from
—John *went out*

is by comparing the contrasting subject exponents. In the first case the subject in inanimate, in the second it is animate.
It is usually easy to isolate the point of contrast between the two V-PCs made up of the same words, one of which is regarded as figurative, the other as literal. Compare, for example:

The light went out of the room.
The light went out.
*The light went.
John went out of the room.
John went out.
John went.

It seems that in this case one can equate 'figurative' with no potential for expansion, contraction, or commutation—that is, with grammatical fixity. In general terms, this is true of most of the figurative phrasal verbs. While it has been possible to demonstrate the formal differences between the examples above, there are cases in which an intuitive figurative labelling is not supported by formal features:

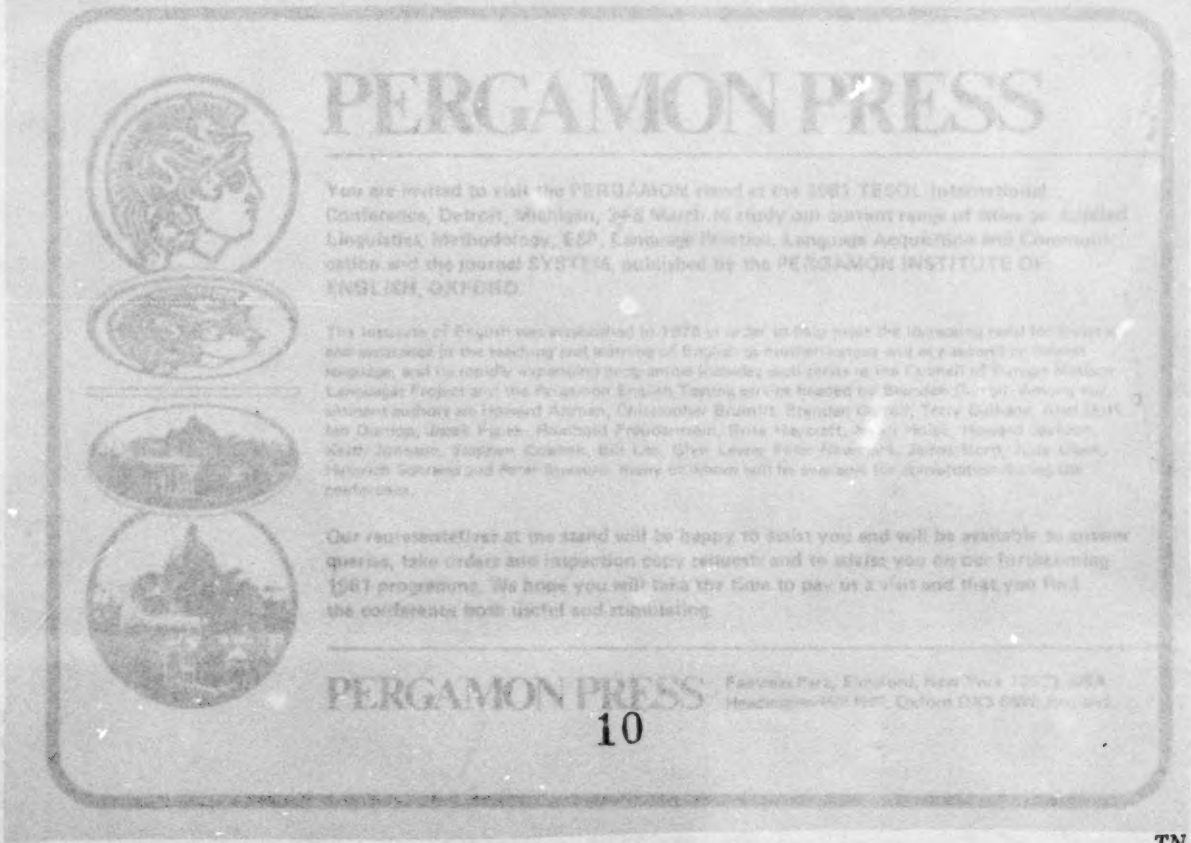
—Outside the dusk was creeping up on us.)
—Outside John was creeping up on us.)

But, generally, when the same verb is used literally and figuratively, one must distinguish two lexical items. This distinction can be formally demonstrated, either by grammatical differences or by differences of exponence.

Concluding Remarks

This minute analysis reflects a complexity which would be overwhelming to an Arab ESL student. But it is a needed stock-in-trade for the language teacher. The important thing here is that V-PCs are patterns of lexis and must be taught as individual items, not via their class properties but via their own uniqueness. Rather than teaching separate words with dictionary core meanings attached to them, we are here interested in relating the internal patterning of V-PCs to a wider patterning, both linguistic and situational. As frequent and systematic applications are practiced, the Arab ESL learner becomes progressively aware of the distribution of V-PCs, phrasal, prepositional, and copula, as particular unique lexical items different from all other lexical items.

From *Team*, Sept. 1980



THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE REQUIREMENT: A SUGGESTION TO ENHANCE ITS EDUCATIONAL ROLE IN TEACHER TRAINING

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A Suggestion . . .

Many TESOL teacher training programs include foreign language "competence" as a program requirement for the M.A. degree (Blatchford, 1979). Frequently, however, TESOL faculty wonder how this requirement can be better integrated into the training of good language teachers. The problem is that usually no opportunity is offered to help the student relate this experience to other knowledge gained in TESOL courses; where such opportunities do exist, they are often so loosely structured that the immense potential value of such an experience is not realized.

We would like to suggest that one way to help relate this requirement to the goal of training teachers would be to encourage and **direct** student research into the process of language learning. In particular, we suggest that some students be encouraged to take a research course at the same time as they fulfill the FL requirement. The course would require that students write a diary noting **specific cognitive** aspects of the learning process and at the end of the course analyze their diary by categorizing their learning strategies and evaluating their learning preferences. If such a course were taken by several students at the same time, much could be gained by class comparison once the analysis had been made.

We would like to suggest that this directed activity has much to recommend it as a means to enhance the immediate value of the FL requirement. **Directed** diary studies provide students with a concrete experience demonstrating that learning strategies vary with (a) the learning situation--for example, when new dialogues are introduced, a top-down or general to specific approach may be used, whereas when grammar is being presented, a more analytic approach may be used by the student, (b) the speed of the class—when lots of new material is presented, the student may use more guessing, whereas when old material or little material is presented, the student may carefully analyze each unit in order to enhance storage (memory), (c) the task—if the class is focused on communication, more inferencing may occur, whereas when the task involves manipulation of grammar as in a pattern drill, more deductive inferencing may occur, (d) the type of exposure —in a real-life setting more guessing may occur, whereas in the classroom, analysis may be favored. While most of these points can be and often are made didactically in courses on methodology or second language acquisition, experiencing them makes them much more meaningful.

Another important lesson to be learned from this exercise is that, like it or not, students have to be in charge of their own learning. Henze reported that she did take control of her own learning and in several instances she prevented her teacher from giving her the answer so she could work out the appropriate answer on her own because she wanted the opportunity to test her own hypotheses. This recognition of personal preference in learning is an important product of the diary exercise; student teachers can acquire a stronger realization of the need to use many different approaches to learning in class in order to enable as many students as possible to benefit from a class.

The major advantage of directed diary studies is that the analysis and evaluation process provides the student with insights into the entire learning process and can directly affect the student teacher's future teaching approach.

However, diary studies don't work in all circumstances. First of all, they are very time-consuming. Students must find the time to write their observations soon after the fact in as great detail as possible or else much will be lost. Hence, the student must want to be diligent about the activity. However, the amount of time spent keeping a diary can be reduced if students are directed to focus on specific aspects of cognitive learning. Henze was directed to focus on inferencing in particular.

Secondly, if diary studies are not well-directed, much superficial reporting occurs which does not provide a proper tool to help in understanding the nature of the learning process. In addition, in order for diary studies to be taken seriously by the student, and to provide a research endeavor, students should be given credit for a seminar.

Some students do find the process of keeping diaries distracting, especially if they are in a language course which is over their heads. Another M.A. candidate tried reporting on her learning in a Chinese course this spring, but found the class moved too quickly for her to keep up with it, much less note her cognitive processes. However, some of these disadvantages can be reduced through specific time-saving devices. Henze found that by making notes and starring them in her regular class notebook little time and effort were wasted.

Thus, for diary studies to be beneficial they require discipline, direction and proper academic credit.

Henze's Diary Study

For the past five years, Rubin has been working on identifying the cognitive strategies which second language learners use, and has isolated a number of strategies used in both formal and informal settings. The list of strategies includes: (1) clarification/verification, (2) monitoring, (3) memorization, (4) guessing/inductive inferencing, (5) deductive reasoning, (6) production tricks, (7) creates opportunity for practice, (8) practices. Rubin found that students most frequently report on items 1, 2, 3, 6, 7 and 8 above. Since she is particularly interested in the role of inductive and deductive reasoning in language, strategies which appear to be more difficult for students to focus upon, she encouraged Henze to focus on these in her diary. In previous studies, Rubin had identified the following strategies as exemplifying inductive reasoning in language learning:

1. Uses clues from . . . (to guess the meaning)
   - Syntactic structure (ex: not only . . . but also . . .)
   - Other items in the sentence/phrase
   - Pictures
   - Context of discourse
   - Topic of discourse
   - Gestures
   - Word association (black and white) or other features which are contingent on each other
   - Intonation
   - Own native language or other foreign language
   - Part of word/sentence
2. Correlates word with action (i.e. stand up, sit down)
3. Looks for key words in a sentence to interpret the rest
4. Distinguishes relevant from irrelevant clues in deducing meaning
5. Ignores difficult words—tries to get an overall picture
6. Figures out narrative/conversational sequence and then uses this to judge sentence meaning

and the following as deductive:

1. Compares native/other language to target language to help identify regular similarities and differences
2. Groups words according to similarity of endings
3. Looks for rules of co-occurrence restrictions and contextual/stylistic rules
4. Infers grammatical rules by analogy (ex: if . . . then . . .)
5. Infers vocabulary by analogy (ex: if nación = nation, then does relación = relation?)
6. Recognizes patterns of own pronunciation and grammatical difficulties
7. Notes exceptions to rules (by applying rules) and questions reason for this
8. When using dictionary, recognizes limitations of dictionary in providing

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equivalents and develops a theory about the nature of these limitations

9. Develops and revises grasp of target language on a continuing basis—processing new information, discarding hypotheses, formulating new ones
10. Finds meaning of word/item by breaking it down into its parts

Prior to the Arabic course, Henze had acquired fluency in Modern Greek and French, and had some knowledge of German and Spanish. In her diary of the Arabic course, she frequently used her experience with these languages, comparing structural points and method of learning.

Since this was the first exposure to Arabic for most students in Henze's class, the class began with the letters of the alphabet and the phonemes they represent. At the beginning of the course a great deal of time was spent on the writing system and its variations and on reading lists of unexplained words. Gradually, the class went on to the analysis of structure and increased vocabulary input. The teacher used English to explain all new material. Once the writing system was mastered, the method became almost exclusively grammar-translation, with some pattern practice as well.

Henze's instructions from Rubin were to use the schedule as a guide, but the examples were only to be taken as suggestive of the kind of detail and strategies desired. She was encouraged to note other phenomena which might deviate from the schedule. At first, Henze frequently referred to the schedule, but found this distracting, so subsequently she kept the basic kinds of strategies in mind rather than referring to them constantly. This allowed her to concentrate fully on the class, and eventually produced a wider range of recorded strategies than expected. It is important to note here though that prior to having the list, Henze's observations of her learning were quite general and that the list was very helpful in focusing her attention.

Most of Henze's observations fit easily into Rubin's pre-established categories. Since the major focus of the diary was on inductive and deductive inferencing, she was able to find many occurrences of these; however, she also noted examples of memory strategies, creating opportunities for practice, practice itself, clarification/verification, and monitoring.

Henze's most frequent deductive strategy was to form a hypothesis about new material, often based on knowledge of the structure of other languages. She then tested this hypothesis on exposure to more Arabic. The following example from the diary describes this process:

"We learned that there is a vocative particle 'ya' which comes before any name to which one speaks or any thing as well, such as the poetic 'oh you mountain'. The concept of vocative is easy for me to understand because Greek uses the vocative case also. But in Greek they only use the case ending, whereas in Arabic they use both the case ending and the particle in front of the noun. This seems redundant. I wonder why they need both? Maybe the vocative case ending is ambiguous. I think it's the same as the accusative ending, so they would need something extra to keep the two cases distinct." (2/28/80, diary)

Henze used inductive reasoning very little at the beginning of the course because by its nature induction requires a focus on overall meaning rather than on grammatical analysis, or an opportunity to use the known to decipher the unknown. In the early Arabic classes, Henze could not use induction because the classes consisted either of reading and writing exercises using unfamiliar and unexplained words, or of grammar exercises whose every detail was explained. However, after approximately two months, the teacher began introducing dialogues and prose requiring quick decisions as to the meaning of utterances which were partially familiar, and thus Henze began noting far more examples of inductive reasoning:

"I felt for the first time in our class that I couldn't possibly keep track of all the new information being thrown at me. For once it was not fed to me in manageable tidbits. My analytical tendancy went out the window when I realized that I couldn't adequately sort out both new vocabulary and unfamiliar variations of structure, and come out with an accurate response. This overload, however, forced me onto a very different level of language response. I found that I could still understand what the teacher was asking, and respond adequately if not accurately. I think semantics took precedence over morphology." (3/11/80, diary)

The following is an illustration of how Henze used induction:

"When we began a new lesson in the book, George started by asking us questions with a few vocabulary words which we had not heard or studied previously. He asked me a question with the word /faransiyu/. I knew because of the context that it must be an adjective of nationality. I guessed Persian because I was thinking of the Persian language, Farisee, but it actually meant 'French'." (3/18/80, diary)

Although many of the observations Henze made were already itemized in Rubin's schedule, Henze was able to provide some new strategies. In particular, she observed herself making conclusions about rule priority:

"I tried to make a sentence in Arabic: 'You don't feel good', but word for word translation would be more like 'You're not in good shape'. I knew that the negative particle causes the predicate of the sentence to go into the accusative case, with the appropriate suffixes, so I put 'good shape' into the accusative. But George said no, and corrected me by putting 'good shape' in the genitive case. He asked me if I could figure out why. I said it must be because 'good shape' is used in a prepositional phrase and must therefore take the genitive ending. In other words, I found out that the rule for prepositional phrase plus genitive suffix takes precedence over the rule for negation plus accusative predicate." (3/13/80, diary)

Another strategy which was not listed in the schedule was that of subliminal rehearsing:

"This morning when I woke up I became conscious that the Arabic word /mouathafa/ was repeating itself in my head. I recognized having heard it before, but didn't know the meaning." (3/13/80, diary)

Later on, Henze noticed the same kind of rehearsal with larger language chunks: phrases and short sentences, some of which she associated with meaning and others which were simply sound patterns committed to memory.

In the process of analysis and evaluation, the relationships among the strategies Rubin listed changed and in part became more complex. Specifically, we came to see that there could be three steps in a learning process: (1) Awareness or selection of an appropriate action or activity for learning, (2) Action which permits activity to take place, (3) Activity which enhances or promotes learning. Hence, learner selection of a particular action or activity, such as preference for practicing the FL, would be step 1. Creating an opportunity for practice would be step 2, and actual practicing might be step 3. A particular student might do any or all of these, but the ability to recognize that he/she does all three indicates a deeper awareness of the learning process. The following quote from the diary illustrates the three steps:

"We went over our homework from the previous time in class; the homework consisted of questions to which we had to write plausible yes/no answers. George read us the questions and we tried to read the answers we had put down on paper several days ago. I found this quite difficult and counterproductive, though the other students seemed to function O.K. I had trouble reading and listening at the same time. If I listened, I lost my place on the page. If I read, I answered mechanically without having understood the question. So I turned my homework paper over and just listened, creating new answers in my head or out loud if I was called upon. That worked much better. I guess the unfamiliarity of the script creates an either-or situation for me; if I'm trying to read, I can do nothing but read." (2/26/80, diary)

In Conclusion. . .

Henze's diary shows us that despite

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cases to manipulate situations so that she received the most benefit.

In the final categorization process, Henze was able to see which strategies she used most frequently, as well as which factors might influence this (i.e. type of class activity, level of class). The study provided Henze with valuable research experience and with the opportunity to better understand the nature of her own and others' learning techniques. It also enabled her to see how little we know about the strategies of language learners and how much we have to learn.

We would like to suggest that gaining these insights is an important process for a teacher, and that directed diary work while fulfilling the FL requirement is an excellent way to maximize the value of the FL requirement for TESOL student teachers.

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arguments to the contrary, it *is* possible for a student to observe his/her own learning strategies in a language class **without** impeding learning. In fact, this study indicates that there are definite benefits from making such observations. Henze said that the research helped her to focus her learning, and that by the end of the course she had concretized some vague notions about her own learning by providing specific examples. After the study, Henze could more clearly see how she uses her knowledge of other foreign language structures in the comparison and modification of hypotheses in learning Arabic. In addition, the diary helped Henze to evaluate her own learning strategies, enabling her in some

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arguments to the contrary, it *is* possible for a student to observe his/her own learning strategies in a language class **without** impeding learning. In fact, this study indicates that there are definite benefits from making such observations. Henze said that the research helped her to focus her learning, and that by the end of the course she had concretized some vague notions about her own learning by providing specific examples. After the study, Henze could more clearly see how she uses her knowledge of other foreign language structures in the comparison and modification of hypotheses in learning Arabic. In addition, the diary helped Henze to evaluate her own learning strategies, enabling her in some

IMPROVING INTERVIEW TESTS

by Paul Nicholson
University of Illinois

A look at titles appearing in ESL journals of recent vintage evinces an increasing interest in sociolinguistic aspects of second language competence. This new interest in the social and contextual aspects of language proficiency has generally been presented under the rubrics of "communicative competence" "pragmatics," or "sociolinguistics." Despite these labeling differences, nearly all of these discussions share the general theme that second language learners need to know the rules of appropriate use of the language in real social contexts as well as the lexicon, diction, sound system, and syntax of the language.

This paper reports the results of some preliminary experiments directed to discovering ways to improve interview testing of ESL. The tests used in this pilot study include a dictation-completion test, a cloze test, and two interview tests. These choices reveal a bias toward "integrative testing." Different integrative tests ideally should be highly correlated with one another, because each should employ tasks which call upon the whole linguistic/contextual competence of the test taker. At first glance more than one good integrative test should be redundant. However, it is important to distinguish between testing for proficiency in speaking and listening, and testing for proficiency in reading and writing. It is obviously possible to gain complete proficiency in speaking and listening without attaining any proficiency at all in reading and writing. Any written test by its nature will be influenced by the test taker's degree of familiarity with the English graphic system. This problem casts doubt on the validity of any written test as a measure of English language proficiency—at best the score on a written test confounds simple language proficiency and clearly independent skills associated with reading and writing. Without a good test of language proficiency which is independent of the skills needed in reading and writing, we cannot ascertain the degree of damage to written tests resulting from this factor. Two conclusions arise from these considerations: 1) a need exists for a reliable non-written test, perhaps an improved interview test, and 2) administration of a number of different written integrative tests is not redundant in so far as they depend to varying degrees on the presence of reading and writing skills (which also need to be assessed).

This experiment compares the interview test which is a part of the Penn State English Proficiency Test (PSEPT) with a new interview format which stresses contextual sensitivity as well as linguistic competence. The PSEPT interview test consists largely of the conversation that transpires while the interviewer gathers biographical data for Language Testing Center records. The interviewer may also interject light conversation to afford more variety of style and topic. At the close of the interview, which generally takes fifteen to twenty minutes, the interviewer scores the interviewee on a one to seven scale for speaking competence, and on the same scale for listening competence.

The new interview format centers around five prerecorded conversations. These range from quite formal (an excerpt from radio news, a business telephone conversation) to quite informal (a married couple discussing domestic trivia). The new interview format attempts to improve on the traditional format in two respects. First, it was hoped that the new test format would be a more valid measure of overall communicative competence. Second, it was hoped that the new test format would yield greater inter-scorer reliability and superior test sensitivity.

Several features of the new test format are intuitively related to the first goal. Interviewers were asked to assess both the interviewee's ability to paraphrase the linguistic content and his ability to describe the context of the conversation. The taped conversations used were actual candid conversations. Furthermore, these were deliberately selected to span a range of style variation.

Greater interscorer reliability and sensitivity were expected to accrue from the following features of the new test format:

1. In the new test format the initial questions for each item are prescribed to the interviewer, and are therefore uniform.
2. Each interviewee response is separately scored in the new format.
3. The criteria for scoring interviewee response is explicitly stated in the instructions to the interviewer.

By contrast, the traditional interview is scored with the two overall subjective judgments—one each for listening and speaking. The traditional interview format procedures do not specify what particular aspects of the interviewee's performance should be assessed.

The traditional PSU interview format gives no explicit criteria for scoring interviewee performance. One would, therefore, expect that different interviewers would apply different personal definitions of what constitutes speaking and listening proficiency. This would be reflected in widely divergent degrees of interview test with written test correlations among different interviewers. The new interview format, on the other hand, provides explicit criteria for scoring interviewee response. Accordingly, one would expect more uniformity in the relationship between written test scores and interview test scores.

The new interview format is based on interviewee response to taped conversations. The response is based solely on verbal and prosodic information conveyed by the tape. One of the fundamental assumptions of integrative testing is that normal speaking and listening require a full complement of integrated language skills. Understanding the context of a communicative event should be as central to overall competence as understanding the literal propositional content. Since all of the written tests used in the PSEPT are integrative (at least to a large degree) it seems reasonable to expect the relationship between the scores for sensitivity to context and the written tests to be comparable to the relationship between written test scores and interviewer assessment of linguistic competence. The disparity between interview test scores and written test scores for both of these interview measures should be explained in terms of the reading and writing skills assessed in the latter but not in the former.

Results

Agreement between interviewers using the new interview format was much higher than agreement between interviewers using the traditional interview format. The differences between interviewers using the new format, however, was pronounced for the completion and cloze test. The expected greater agreement for interview with written test scores did occur.

Interviewer assessment of sensitivity to context was clearly at least as good a predictor of written test scores as linguistic competence. The results are limited in scope, and even more limited in generalizability.

Scores for linguistic competence and for sensitivity to context were equally good predictors of written test scores despite the fact that they were correlated with each other at only the .65 level. It is interesting that combined scores for linguistic competence and sensitivity to context were in most cases better predictors than either score separately. That the new test combined score correlated highly with cloze test scores is also encouraging. The cloze test is the most integrative of the written tests used in the PSEPT and should therefore correlate highly with any other test that taps the overall competence of the test taker. By contrast, the traditional interview test correlated most highly with the dictation test, and least highly with the cloze test.

These results suggest two practical benefits of a more structured interview format of the type discussed in this

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paper. First, it appears that deliberately including contextual as well as linguistic elements in the design of the interview test increases its validity by insuring that a larger part of the speaker's overall competence is assessed. Secondly, by standardizing the linguistic input to the interviewee and by making scoring criteria explicit, a greater degree of reliability can be attained.

The results of this pilot study at once substantiate the promise of an interview format which assesses the interviewees ability to reconstruct context as well as his ability to paraphrase linguistic content. At the same time, this study highlights the need for a much larger scale study which would permit statistically more powerful tests of the relative reliability and validity of the approach proposed in this paper. It would also be desirable to compare a variety of approaches to introducing stylistic and contextual elements into interview testing. Of course, a direct test of interscorer reliability is critically needed. The small number of subjects and interviewers available for this pilot study made all of these refinements impracticable.

TN 2/81

PROMOTING GOOD RELATIONS WITH CLASSROOM TEACHERS

by Elinor Gregor
Nashville

Editor's Note: This previously appeared in the Oct. TN, but the last column was inadvertently left out. The article is reprinted here in full.

The relationship of the ESL teacher and the classroom teacher is an unfortunately neglected area in ESL education. Communication between the two teachers generally awaits the first appearance of the foreign child, report card time and crisis situations. All too often the classroom teacher is unprepared for non-English speaking students. My intention in this brief paper is to offer some practical suggestions for establishing good relations with classroom teachers prior to their contact with foreign children. If we can enlist the classroom teacher as a strong supporter of non-English speakers in the classroom we will construct a solid basis for enhancing the educational experience of both native and non-native English speakers.

One of the more potentially difficult situations faced by ESL instructors is to encounter classroom teachers who have never had non-English speakers in their classes. Realistically, such children can be a considerable burden for teachers untrained in working with them. A classroom teacher who is understandably apprehensive and concerned about this new experience represents a special challenge and opportunity for the ESL instructor.

One device that I have found effective in facilitating a collegial, working relationship is to spend a few minutes with each classroom teacher prior to the opening of school. Since much of the information about new programs is based on hearsay and rumor, the first topic discussed is the nature of the ESL program. Many teachers welcome a brief description of the rationale behind the program and its role in continuing the American tradition of providing a haven for immigrants fleeing repressive regimes and seeking improved educational opportunities. Although it seems obvious to teachers of ESL, it is well to point out that in the United States there can be no equal oportunity without fluency in English. I have found it especially helpful to assure the classroom teacher that the ESL program is designed to provide non-English speaking children with the shortest and smoothest route to English language competence.

After giving a general overview of the program, ESL teachers should define the special role they play in the child's acquisition of English. ESL teachers are, above all, language teachers trained in specific methodology and equipped with special materials created for non-English speakers. Each ESL activity, whether songs, games, art projects or stories, is selected to facilitate the child's language competency. It is helpful to explain briefly the teaching methods employed and to demonstrate how the specific activities selected can improve comprehension, strengthen vocabulary or increase control of grammatical structures.

In addition to discussing the school's program and the role of the ESL teacher in the program, ESL teachers must also encourage the classroom teacher to continue the process of language education within the homeroom. Beneficial proposals are those that are specific and serve to incorporate the foreign child into the regular classroom.

A good starting place for practical suggestions is the classroom seating arrangement. I regularly advise my classroom collegues to seat the foreign child next to a sociable, outgoing student who can assist both the new student and the teacher. This role should be rotated among all the students in the class so that each child has the opportunity to become involved in the teaching situation. Tempting as it is, I do not believe that children who speak the same language should be seat mates. On occasion a bilingual child can be a helpful interpreter, but this assistance should be kept to a minimum. It happens all too frequently that new English learners become so dependent on another speaker of the same language that they wait for translation rather than put forth the effort to understand the English directly.

The duties assigned to the seat mate include explaining the assignments of the day and assisting in the child's adaptation to the new American classroom through friendship and support. Peer teaching starts the non-English speaker into the school year with a network of special tutors who are his friends and helpers. The American children who serve as seat mates receive first hand experience with foreign children and develop qualities of patience and understanding as they help the child solve problems and deal with unfamiliar situations. Being spared the drudgery of constant repetition and demonstration for one individual student, the classroom teacher more easily accepts the foreign child into the classroom.

Once the initial seating problem is resolved and the general student-teaching-student plan is discussed, the ESL teacher can address what is, in all likelihood, the overwhelming concern of the classroom teacher: how to keep the non-English speaker occupied during the day. I have approached this problem by bringing my language learning materials to my first meeting with the classroom teacher. Familiarity with the text books, language learning games, workbooks and art activities is an essential part of the classroom teacher's understanding and appreciation of the ESL program. In discussing curriculum materials, I emphasize those activities that can be done by the foreign students in the regular classroom. This assistance is appreciated by the classroom teacher and is beneficial for the student since it maintains continuity between the ESL and regular classroom programs.

A simple picture dictionary is a particularly helpful example of the type of material that can be used in the classroom. The peer teachers can utilize the book to drill vocabulary, reviewing spelling, reproduce pictures of the dictionary entries as art work as well as many other applications the students will devise themselves.

In addition to the picture dictionary, classroom teachers should be encouraged to use other ESL materials for their non-English speaking children. Language materials, workbooks, cue cards, bingo picture games, and other devices that are part of the ESL teacher's standard repertoire can be shared with the classroom teacher for extra practice, review and enrichment.

Another way in which ESL teachers can extend the impact of their instructional efforts is to act as liaisons between non-English speakers and American children. Some of the material shared with the classroom teacher, for example, should focus on the ESL child's country of origin. A good first project is a booklet on the native country. Pictures and descriptions of maps, flags, types of houses, principal products, foods and samples of the written language are a few of the items that can be included. At the same time, the entire class (or the seat mate) can put together a parallel booklet on the United States, thereby participating in a social studies unit based on the comparative study of both cultures.

In conclusion, ESL teachers do well to reach out to their classroom colleagues. The time spent with classroom teachers gives the ESL teacher a better understanding of their viewpoint and an opportunity to present the school's ESL program in a positive light. Simple, practical suggestions encourage a positive attitude towards non-native English speakers and prepare the classroom teacher to work with them effectively. Above all, personal contact with the classroom teacher creates an atmosphere of mutual respect that provides the foundation for future growth and development.

ATTEND THE 3rd ANNUAL SUMMER INSTITUTE
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TESOL NEWSLETTER

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ENTERING THE 80's—SOME PROFESSIONAL PERSPECTIVES

by Richard Orem
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What is the future of language teaching, teacher-training, and the tatus of the profession in the eyes of the public at large? I'd like to touch upon several issues with the purpose not of making any rash predictions about where we might be in 1990, but to at least pique your interest and concern about where you may be as an individual within the profession and to encourage you to think of where the professional organization serving your interests should be going in the next decade. You may or may not agree with my assertions, conclusions, descriptions, or predictions, but perhaps they can serve as a starting point for future discussion.

TEACHING THE LANGUAGE LEARNER

Perhaps there is no other area of interest equal to this first one—teaching the language learner—to the profession at large. After all, isn't our business that of teaching, and aren't our students those who are learning English as a second language? The literature is filled with research concerned with improving the instruction of the limited English speaker.

The 1970's witnessed a great surge in concern for teaching methodology and innovations in the development of classroom materials, consumable and nonconsumable. We were deluged with acronyms—ALM, CLL, ABE, ESL, EST, EAP, VESL, CBE, CBTE, CAI, LEA, NABE, LEP, SIG, APL, ESEA, BESC, etc. Perhaps we can characterize the '70's as the decade of the acronym (DOTA).

Behaviorism was thrashed about, but not completely discarded, and cognitivism and humanism became everyone's favorite schools of psychology. The developments in teaching methodology in the 70's have been referred to as the "gentle revolution" by at least one teacher trainer for several reasons: we have moved from a basically teacher-centered mode to a more student-centered mode—from a mechanistic view of the language learner to a more organismic view—from a notion of the teacher as responsible for all learning, to a notion that the student should assume that responsibility. These changes can indeed identify the 70's as a period of "revolution." Seen in the larger political-cultural context, the decade of the 70's was a period of great instability and flux in this country, in education in general and in language education in particular. The elimination of foreign language requirements in colleges and universities resulted in serious reductions in language education in the public schools. The cry for "accountability" of teacher and student has not left the language teacher and language learner unscathed. Vestiges of behaviorist thinking can be seen in the movement toward competency-based education and teacher training, behavioral objectives, and minimum performance levels. The key to these trends has been "accountability." These trends are bound to continue into the 80's although there has been a noticeable disenchantment with several of these trends in the past few years. Tighter budgets, smaller enrollments at the elementary and secondary levels, and an older, more highly paid teaching force will all put pressures on the system to provide more and faster results. We are a results-oriented society. The ends often justify the means. Materials will become more expensive with increased production costs. Teachers will be expected to spend more of their own time on materials development. Yet, as Joan Morley pointed out at the 1979 TESOL Convention in Boston, very few currently employed ESL teachers, only 30%, have had any training at all in ESL, and very few who have received training have received it in the area of materials development. The bulk of teachers entering the field, therefore, will continue to depend for the most part on commercial materials which will only accelerate the rush of publishers to invest resources in this area and encourage innovation on a nation-wide scale.

I hope I haven't painted too bleak a picture at this point. Let me reveal what I see as some promising positive trends in methodology and materials development for the 80's. The trend toward more humanistic education will undoubtedly gather momentum in the 80's led by educators who will have enough courage to defy the back-to-basics mentality of the late 70's. We are witnessing this humanistic trend in materials development with increasing focus on the learner's communication needs, as identified by the learner, not solely by textbook writers. We are beginning to see a growing awareness of the problem of illiteracy among our adolescent and adult population, both native English and non-native English speaking. Our country has failed in any attempt to this day to reverse the trend toward a more and more illiterate society. The pressure placed on our public school systems by growing numbers of illiterate and even preliterate refugee populations is more than simply an educational problem. It is also a political, social and economic problem.

To slow this trend toward illiteracy we must look to methodologies which

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can be better suited for these new student populations. Audiolingual methodology was fine for a basically well educated student group who already had developed basic skills in inductive thinking and were literate in their language. But what of the new ESL student who is essentially illiterate and unschooled? To deal with these students we will see greater movement toward bilingual programs at all levels, elementary through adult, to the use of the student's native language in developing first and second language skills. To accomplish this, we will have to see an increased interest in foreign language education of native English speaking TESOL teachers.

In adult literacy education we are seeing more attention paid to language experience, survival English, and a recognition of certain psycholinguistic principles—namely that the individual brings to each lesson a set of experiences, attitudes, values, feelings, which affect his perceptions of reality and the world around him.

An approach which has received much international attention, especially in developing countries, and one which is being looked at in this country by a small cadre of adult educators in particular for its application in literacy education, was developed by a Brazilian educator, Paolo Freire, an intellectual, Christian Marxist, exiled from his native Brazil, and from Chile, currently working for the World Council of Churches out of Geneva, Switzerland. His radical approach to literacy education is embodied by the realization that education is not a neutral force, that it is a social and political force, the absence of which has effectively disenfranchised the poor and disadvantaged. Although I see little chance of a wide-scale adoption of the Freirian philosophy in education circles in this country (it is extremely threatening to those who hold power), I see a growing movement in the 80's toward a realization that in order for our country to remain viable as a political and economic force, we must adopt a policy of commitment to reducing the absolute and relative levels of illiteracy in this country. In order for this to be accomplished, we will need to make a national commitment.

Another trend in materials and methods which I see advancing into the 80's concerns the technological advances in computers and Computer-Assisted-Instruction (CAI). Advances in computor technology with decreases in costs will make it possible for even smaller school systems to invest more heavily in this area of instruction. By 1990 a criterion of literacy in this country may be one's ability to successfully program and operate a small home computer. The advent of computer games and their popularity among youngsters as well as adults is a portent of things to come in language teaching.

TEACHING THE LANGUAGE TEACHER

My second area of concern is teaching the language teacher. Here I would like to speak to issues related to the growth of professionalism in our field, what the future of professionalism may be in the 80's, and the state of the art in teacher training in the United States.

The growth of International TESOL and its affiliates in the 70's is a sign of the increased professionalism of the field. Yet this growth in the professional organization has scarcely affected the policies and procedures by which many ESL teachers and bilingual educators are hired and fired. The status of ESL and bilingual education as marginal in the general field of public education—from elementary to adult levels—is evident wherever you turn. Part-time or auxiliary status often characterizes the ESL/bilingual educator in most programs. Evidence of this second class status was vividly illustrated several weeks ago in Chicago when the Chicago Board of Education shifted elementary teachers into adult programs and adult teachers into elementary programs in order to even out some imbalances in instructional loads brought about by student population shifts and budget cuts. The basic principle followed in these shifts was seniority and tenure, not necessarily qualification and training. There is a growing push in Illinois, for example, and elsewhere in the United States for certification of ESL teachers which would hopefully end such practices. (Bilingual educators already possess certification in Illinois.) To many, ESL and bilingual education certification offers a panacea, a cure-all for what ails the profession. With certification would come increased job status, more job security, a recognition of professional worth, perhaps even a raise in pay. Yet certification does not guarantee any of these.

In adult education, the issue of certification has been discussed, ad nauseum, for several years. In many states legislative and professional bodies have required certification of a number of professional groups—pharmacists, nurses, veterinarians, teachers, engineers, and many others. Just as interesting, in several states which were leaders of professional certification in the 60's and 70's, we are witnessing a backlash against certification and actual repealing of laws requiring certification. The reason? It is generally agreed that you can't legislate competence.

Certification is not a cure-all. What may happen in the 1980's is that this single issue of certification will push the professional organization toward a stance more akin to unionism, not professionalism. At that point we may find ourselves as a group more interested in the language teacher than the language learner.

This movement toward certification is also in part a reaction to the attacks from both inside and outside the profession on the whole process of teacher education. Here in Illinois, for example, the present or potential language teacher has available over a dozen institutions of higher education which offer programs of study leading to bachelor's, master's, and doctorate degrees in bilingual/bicultural education, linguistics, TESOL, and related fields.

In addition, a number of federally and state funded agencies provide an abundant array of inservice workshops for specific needs of teachers, administrators, counselors, and para-professionals. Most of these programs of teacher education in institutions of higher education are built on traditional models of teacher education—they are theory based rather than field based. Potential teachers spend 95 to 100% of their training program in the classroom as students rather than teachers. When they receive their degree, they have some competence in literature and language, but little experience in application. Teacher trainers may encourage these new teachers to experiment, to find what works, to pick and choose, to be *eclectic*. Yet perhaps this advice to be eclectic is really a copout, an admission on our part that we really don't know what works, that in reality, every method so far known to ESL and bilingual education is inadequate. Doesn't all the research of teaching effectiveness point to the teacher not the method, as the one crucial variable determining success in the classroom? Perhaps we have overlooked in most teacher training programs a very fundamental point which should be emphasized in the next decade. Materials and methods all reflect this basic deficiency in our training programs. We may be very good in training teachers in the use of specific techniques, gadgets, in a cookbook approach to the classroom, but we have been very lax in developing a cadre of teachers who know why they do what they do, and who have bothered to develop a philosophy of language teaching. In other words, to tell a teacher that it is OK to pick and choose materials and techniques from a variety of methodologies can be interpreted as an admission of a lack of understanding on our own part as to why we are doing what we are doing. Teachers too often lack a basic philosophy of language teaching which can provide them with

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a general framework within which to design their daily activities. This philosophy can provide a consistent approach to language teaching and bring the teacher to an increased awareness that teaching cannot, should not, be conducted on a day to day basis. The what-can-I-do-tomorrow-morning syndrome runs rampant among all teachers today. Unfortunately, I see little to indicate any change in that direction for the 80's. As teacher trainers we must stress self-evaluation and the development of personal philosophies of language teaching, to overcome this deficiency in the 80's.

TEACHING THE NONPROFESSIONAL PUBLIC

The third issue I would like to discuss is that of teaching the nonprofessional public. This is where TESOL and affiliates as professional organizations can and must be more influential in the 80's. I see the decade of the 80's as a new decade of growth for TESOL and a decade of greater maturity. With added maturity will come greater responsibility and a greater involvement in an advocacy position for its membership. Attempts at this in the recent past include such examples as the recent testimony provided by Illinois TESOL/BE organization at the Lau hearings in Chicago last September. The existence of our jobs is dependent for the most part on legislation at the state and federal levels. Many of us lack job security because of local program priorities, again dictated by funding levels. The name of the game for progress in the 1980's will be advocacy of professional goals whether it be obtaining certification, higher salaries, greater recognition of importance of our jobs among the general public, or whatever. This professional organization will find the opportunities presented to it more numerous in the 80's than at any time in the previous 10 years.

We're talking about the public image of second language instruction and bilingual education, of convincing the general public, and in particular state legislators of the value of this work. By the way, there is a good chance that for at least the next four years, if not eight, that funding for bilingual education and ESL will increasingly depend on state resources, rather than federal, or state determination of funding levels, not federal. So, it's time to begin courting our state representatives.

The image currently held by the general public of our profession, or at least of our professional goals, is not the best. I was recently traveling by car through central Illinois and happened to tune into a Paul Harvey news broadcast. Now Paul Harvey has never been known for liberal thinking, and could be considered a serious spokesman for the majority of Americans who voted in November's general election. The topic was bilingual education and his position was why do we need it? We should be teaching all children and adults in this country how to speak, read and write English immediately, that bilingual education actually promoted diversity, which so often leads to friction and clashes among minority groups in a pluralistic society. He cited the cases of Canada, Belgium and India as bilingual societies where there have been threats to the status quo of those nations as a result of language policies. Bilingual education does face an image problem in this country. Organizations such as TESOL must take the lead in trying to improve this image.

One way of overcoming an image problem and improve our skills at lobbying is by developing linkages with other state organizations with similar interests; FLTA (Foreign Language Teachers Association) and ACEA (The National Adult and Continuing Education Association) and their affiliate organizations of educators whose futures also depend a great deal on their ability to present their cases to funding agencies and local education agencies.

A final issue I would like to talk about with potential for TESOL has been identified with the term "global education." This concept was treated at length in the 1979 Report of the Illinois Task Force on Foreign Language and International Studies. To quote: Educators and the general public must accept the challenge to develop a global education that will prepare our citizens to cope with a diverse world with its many ethnic and cultural systems. The need is for a broader humanistic approach toward education, which requires new competencies and new broader perspectives of citizenship. It is becoming increasingly clear that the world is demanding new attitudes from all of us. According to Robert Leetsma, USOE Associate Commissioner, among other competencies and sensitivities, each individual needs to develop:

1) Some basic cross-cultural understanding, empathy, and ability to communicate with people from different cultures.

2) A sense of why and how humanity shares a common future—global issues and dynamics and the calculus of interdependence

3) A sense of stewardship in use of the earth and acceptance of the ethic of intergenerational responsibility for the well-being or fair chance of those who come after us.

Later in this same report, Global Education is defined in terms of five dimensions:

1) Perspective Consciousness—a recognition on the part of the individual that his or her view of the world is not universally shared

2) State of the Planet Awareness—awareness of prevailing world conditions and developments

3) Cross-cultural Awareness

4) Knowledge of global dynamics

5) Awareness of human choices—some awareness of the problems of choice confronting individuals, nations, and the human species as consciousness and knowledge of the global system expands.

The implications of this trend for our professional organization are profound. We must as a profession recognize in wholistic terms the interdependence of all of us, in a continually shrinking yet more complex world society. Unfortunately, unless this concern is shared by our political leadership in this country the concept of global education will not flourish. The actions of the new national administration in the next two to three years could very well set the stage for or against this trend in education for the entire decade.

SUMMARY

To summarize, I've tried to share with you a number of issues which will face our membership individually and collectively in the 80's from my professional perspective. We will see greater use of new humanistic methodologies and at the same time greater exploration of the use of technology in the form of computers and computor-assisted instruction. Our country will continue to face the continuing problems of massive immigration and our membership will confront the education of these new Americans in the classroom.

Certification of ESL teachers in the public schools will likely be resolved in the next decade. In order for us to be involved in the process, we should start the process within our own organization of identifying those standards, behaviors, characteristics, competencies or whatever you wish to call them, which a trained ESL instructor at whatever level should possess. Whether or not you support certification, everyone involved in teacher training in ESL or Bilingual Education must impress upon teacher trainees the importance of continuing their professional education through membership and active involvement in professional organizations, and by continuing participation in various inservice activities.

And finally, this professional association, in collaboration with other education associations serving similar clientele must link organizational arms in the 80's to convince the public of the worth of our efforts and the need to promote the concept of global education, undoubtedly a concept which, if we agree with it, will need our support in the next decade. □

ESL AND BILINGUAL TEACHER CERTIFICATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, COMMUNITY COLLEGES, AND BASIC ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS: SOME RECENT DEVELOPMENTS AND ISSUES

by Gina Cantoni-Harvey
Northern Arizona University

The number of states offering some kind of ESL or bilingual certification to public school teachers has increased dramatically since the publication of Don Knapp's "Report on Certification" in the November-December 1976 issue of the *TESOL Newsletter*. According to Knapp's figures a total of only twelve states offered either ESL or bilingual certification, or both; now there are thirty. Only four offered certification in ESL, as compared to today's nineteen; only ten offered certification in bilingual education, as compared to today's twenty-two; moreover, several states that had only one have added the other, so that the number of states offering certification in both bilingual education and ESL has grown from two to fourteen between 1976 and January 1980. The reasons for such a dramatic increase are complex, having to do with the numbers of refugees entering the U.S., the educational needs of immigrant and U.S. minority groups and the political pressure exerted by these groups. The same factors are also operating on some states that do not at present offer either bilingual or ESL certification, but are in the process of completing the necessary steps or of gathering the necessary information.

The issues to be discussed in this article, as well as the updated figures on the availability of certification, are presented here as an interim report on the third certification survey conducted on behalf of the TESOL Standing Committee on Schools and Universities Coordination. The committee, as well as other TESOL members and a large number of other interested educators, wanted not only to follow the progress of the trend toward making ESL and bilingual certification available wherever it may be needed but also to redefine issues such as the difference between free-standing and add-on- licensure and the advisability of provisional certification.

In June of 1980 a questionnaire on public schools and Adult Basic Education was mailed to the State Departments of Education (or equivalent agencies) of all states and territories, followed by a separate questionnaire on community colleges. Fifty-one of the fifty-five agencies contacted have responded to the first questionnaire, and forty-seven to the second. Those that did not respond have been contacted again, and an update on the data will be published as soon as all information is available; however, an analysis of the material on hand already provides several insights that might be worth sharing with those facing similar situations.

In his article, Don Knapp stated that "the pattern is clearly one of requiring no certified proficiency for those teaching ESL in almost any state, and the situation is only slightly better for certified proficiency in teaching bilingually." As we have seen, this statement no longer applies to public schools in the U. S.; however, with some modifications, one might apply it to the current situation with regard to community colleges and Adult Basic Education. According to our survey, only four states (Arizona, California, Iowa, and Wisconsin) have established some form of credentialing for community college ESL and bilingual instructors; eight other states consider the establishment of some form of certification in these areas desirable, but not necessarily feasible.

Three of the states surveyed do not have a community college system at all, and most of the others do not certify post-secondary teachers. The broader issue, at this level, is not so much certification in the areas of ESL and bilingual Education but rather certification as opposed to some other form of identifying qualified instructors for any subject. In most states the standards are set either by community college boards of trustees or by the individual institutions, outside the jurisdiction of the State Departments of Education.

Some of the respondents defended this system, claiming that certification would create another layer of bureaucracy without improving the quality of instruction. It was also pointed out that whereas teacher certification is justified whenever attendance is compulsory, as in elementary and secondary schools, in post-secondary institutions the students are free to leave if the instructors are incompetent. Others felt that certifying of community college teachers would be desirable but impractical because of the work involved in implementing it, and finally others were unreservedly in favor of it. One respondent said, "Certification, though generally irrelevant to the effective teaching process, might help assure the background required of good teaching. Good teachers are better if their background is broader." Another stated that "College teachers should meet some kinds of standards." And a third affirmed that state-supported community colleges would profit from having state certification standards, just as the public schools have for many years.

Most of the respondents who narrowed their focus to the areas of ESL and bilingual education, however, favored the establishment of certification or at least of standard competencies. One writer hoped that "some form of certification would ensure that personnel pressed into ESOL service from the English and Foreign Language Departments would receive training if needed." And another wrote that "Community colleges have done well without certification so far. However, there are too few trained persons available to fill positions in ESL and bilingual education. There are no established competencies; these would be welcome, but a formal certification probably would not." Those who see ESL or bilingual certification as undesirable or unlikely point to the limited number of people in need of such services in their state, and the consequent scarcity of programs and courses in these fields.

Eight states (Arizona, California, Delaware, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Wisconsin and one territory, Connecticut, Minnesota, and American Samoa) offer ESL or bilingual credentials to qualified teachers of Adult Basic Education. In Arizona, ESL is specifically listed as one of the categories in which an Adult Education Certificate may be issued to college teachers, certified teachers or individuals recognized as outstanding in the field. California requires a BA degree and ten upper division semester units or twenty undergraduate semester units in ESL.

In most states, credentials for teaching Adult Basic Education are not controlled as stringently as credentials for teaching in public schools. Some of the reasons invoked for or against certification of community college teachers also apply to the certification of Adult Basic Education teachers, and the issue is not limited to the fields of ESL or bilingual education. However, the issue seems particularly critical in these two subjects, for it is in the national interest that adequate provisions be made not only for teaching English to non-English-speaking public school students but also to their families.

Finally, let us consider some of the issues concerning ESL and bilingual certification of public school teachers. In his 1976 Report Don Knapp stated, "There are basically two patterns for certification. . . . The most frequent is a supplementary endorsement for teachers who are already certified to teach in other areas. The other is specialization in ESL or bilingual education in a college certification program, sometimes as a minor, associated with a 'major' certifiable area." For the first pattern we are using the term "add-on endorsement" and for the second the term "free-standing certification." Although useful, the distinction is not clear-cut, and the categories are not mutually exclusive. In our survey we

Continued on next page

CERTIFICATION *Continued from page 7*

asked responding states to check whether they had the add-on or the free-standing kind of licensure, separating the responses for ESL from those for bilingual education. We also defined the terms "add-on" and "free-standing" in our cover letter and asked for input on the interpretation of the two categories. The respondents classified themselves as follows:

ESL Endorsement:
Colorado
Idaho
Louisiana
Nevada
(Secondary)
New Jersey
New Mexico
Ohio
Rhode Island
Vermont
Wisconsin

ESL Free-Standing Certification
Alaska
Delaware
Hawaii
Massachusetts
Nebraska
New Hampshire
New Jersey
Utah
Wisconsin

Bilingual Endorsement
Arizona
California
Colorado
Idaho
Indiana
Louisiana
Maine
Massachusetts
Michigan
New Jersey
New Mexico
Rhode Island
Texas
Utah
Vermont
Washington
Wisconsin

Bilingual Certification
Alaska
California
Connecticut
Delaware
Georgia
Hawaii
Illinois
Nebraska
New Hampshire
Vermont
Wisconsin

In addition, Illinois has a separate six-year certificate for certified applicants competent in both English and another language. The respondents who furnished explanations of the terms "add-on" endorsement and "free-standing" certification basically agreed that the first indicates a rider attached to an elementary or secondary certificate, whereas the second requires no base certificate. An add-on endorsement seems more appropriate for bilingual education, which is a process rather than a subject. On the other hand, ESL is a subject in which one can be certified just as one could be certified to teach French or German. It is not surprising that in the area of ESL more states offer certification than endorsement, while the opposite is true in the field of bilingual education.

Respondents were also asked about the possible advantages of add-on endorsements, since the holders still have to earn certification. One respondent called the endorsements "cosmetic" rather than useful, "since they are not mandatory for persons hired to teach in bilingual programs." But others saw several advantages: for the teachers, greater employability, possibility of higher pay, and the option of teaching in a regular classroom as well as in an ESL or bilingual classroom; for the districts, a chance to verify their employees' qualifications, the availability of versatile personnel, and the possibility of retraining their own teachers in either ESL or bilingual education provided they can qualify.

In addition to the endorsement and certification discussed above, many states with a large non-English-speaking population offer emergency or provisional certificates in either bilingual education or ESL or both on a limited-time basis; the usual justification for such a measure is the lack of enough qualified teachers to fill available positions. Many of these states also accept out-of-state credentials and several have reciprocity arrangements with other states. California is considering adding ESL; in Iowa, recommendations for certification have been accepted by one state-wide certification committee; in Maryland, a sound basis for requesting certification is now available in the form of a new Master's degree in ESOL established at the University of Maryland, College Park; in New York, the application for certification, rejected for failure to include English proficiency, is being revised in preparation for re-submission; Virginia is ready for committee action, and West Virginia has reached the discussion stage. Each of these states is facing a long, arduous struggle; lest we become too optimistic, we can look at the "areas of promise" of Don Knapp's Report; of the eight states that had reported the matter as "under study" or "under review", Florida, Georgia, Virginia, New York, and Nevada have not implemented certification in either area; but on the positive side, Connecticut now offers certification in bilingual, Idaho in ESL, and Hawaii in both.

The states that gave a negative reply to our inquiry about whether they were considering certification in ESL or bilingual education did not always give a reason for their choice, but some stated that there was no sufficient or demonstrated need. Colorado and Texas, having implemented bilingual certification, see no reason to add ESL. A cheerful note comes from Maine, where an interesting "Programme des etudes biculturelles/bilingues: Les franco-americains" has been established at the University of Maine at Fort Kent. Although ESL or bilingual certification is not yet being considered in that state, the respondent stated that the groups involved in the issue are not vocal enough, and added, "but ask us a year from now." We intend to do so. □

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES FOR ESL

by Mary Ann Christison
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The process of communication in the classroom is not so different from real-life communication. In both situations we create perceptions of people and events and try to re-create them for others using the medium of language. Naturally, we all hope our listeners will translate the language we use into an image similar to the one we had in mind. But how do we know if the image was translated correctly?

The process of communication is more difficult for second language learners because many of the cultural perceptions we share as native speakers are not common to these learners and vice versa. To the extent that these perceptions are different, students will continue to have difficulty in sharing them with others. Even the best teachers cannot solve this dilemma entirely, but we can help our students be successful more often by providing activities in the classroom which develop in them an understanding of the elements which make up and affect communication; namely, the *scope* and *level* of communication.

The Scope

The first element of communication which bears directly on the language teaching act is the *scope* of communication—intrapersonal, interpersonal, and a-personal. The scope of communication affects how people choose to interact. We act and react differently depending on the communicative situation. For example, our behavior with family and close friends differs significantly from our behavior at work in a less personal environment. Although to expect this difference may be an automatic assumption in one's native language, it is something that has to be explained, observed and acquired in a second language.

Silent contemplation is a form of intrapersonal communication. These reflective or meditative activities prepare the learner for more active tasks. They are important experiences because they help students become more sensitive to their own personal and cultural values and can build in them a positive sense of dignity and pride. Language learners need these activities to assist them in becoming effective communicators in the second language. By learning to understand themselves they gain an appreciation for others.

Interpersonal communication involves others. If students are to gain an understanding of the different cultures and lifestyles evident in those they communicate with, they must be involved in interpersonal communication. This type of communication can be separated into dyads and small groups.

Dyads involve two people exchanging ideas, information, and feelings on a one-to-one basis. Such communication occurs in real-life situations in both formal and informal contexts. A formal context would be a job interview while an informal context would be two friends chatting informally about their friends or family.

Interpersonal communication also includes small group activities where from three to fifteen individuals engage in communication to achieve a common purpose such as small group problem-solving. Of course, you can't just put your students in a circle and expect them to talk. Students must be prepared for the experience.

It is a well-recognized progression in communication to move from a one-to-one situation to a larger group. Classroom activities should be sequenced to follow this progression. In addition, activities must also be implemented to control individual tendencies to dominate or to withdraw and revert to avoidance behavior. It takes careful planning and preparation to transform a loose collection of individuals into a sincerely and positively functioning group.

When the scope of communication activities enlarges, we deal with *a-personal* communication. A-personal communication is public communication, those situations in which one person addresses a fairly large group of people, face to face, but not as spontaneous interacting participants. Traditional language classes provide very few opportunities for students to experience this type of communication. Because it is a skill some students will need in their chosen professions, it is important they have opportunities to practice addressing large groups of people. We often invite American students into the language classroom for the ten-minute student presentations on varying topics. Having American students or outside guests in the class provides an atmosphere similar to one students will encounter outside their language class. We also try to arrange for each student to address another class on-campus, thus providing them with an actual real-life experience for a-personal communication.

A-personal communication also includes mass communication which is generated through newspapers, radio, television, etc. and reaches very large groups of people. Students in programs are given opportunities to write articles and have them published in the school newspapers, tape radio commercials on cassette recorders, and prepare short "news flashes" on video-tape. This gives them an opportunity to see how they are viewed by others. We always provide a forum for discussion of the video-tapes afterward.

The Level

The second element which bears directly on the language teaching act is the level of communication. The *intellectual* level is most often used in the classroom. Students spend a great deal of time listening to instructions about how to do things, gathering facts, and asking questions. We also use the *skills* level of communication in the classroom. We communicate in order to practice communicating. This includes such things as practicing rising and falling intonation (to indicate questions or statements), changing pitch and volume, to overcome certain speech characteristics or simply practice in mastering a syntactic feature of the language. The last level, the *feelings* level, is one level in which our students may not have much of an opportunity to experience in the traditional language classroom. On this level, we communicate to express our feelings and to understand the feelings of others—a very important part of the communication process.

As an example of communicating on different levels, consider this experience concerning Keiko, a young Japanese student. Several weeks ago she was intensely involved in a feelings level discussion with an American girl from one of her classes. Keiko commented later how happy she was to have found such a good and understanding friend. However, later in the day, when she ran into the girl in the cafeteria, the young American girl communicated on an intellectual level, *How are your classes? Got to run*, etc., not sharing any feelings. Keiko had not expected this. Naturally, she was terribly upset. It took a lot of talking to make her see that people often communicate on different levels and this is to be expected. Such behavior did not mean her friend did not like her. Providing activities which allow students to explore the levels of communication is important in developing an understanding of the communication process.

Being an effective communicator in a second language is, after all, the ultimate goal of second language learning. Our students need activities which provide them with opportunities to experience the *scope* and *level* of communication. The culmination of all of these activities helps them to better understand the new culture and environment in which they are living, and thus, to be better communicators.

As teachers, it is important that we view the language learning setting not only as a *language* experience, but also as a *communication* experience and that we offer activities which develop sensitivity in both aspects. □

THE PURPOSES OF TECHNICAL WRITING COURSES FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS IN U.S. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

by Patricia Byrd, *ELI*
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by Gregory K. West, *ELI*
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Technical writing courses in universities in the U.S. take as their main objective the preparation of students to do the writing required of practicing professionals in the "real world" of work outside the university. This purpose suggests that much of what happens in such classes and in materials prepared for such classes will not be relevant to the academic needs of foreign students. We have no idea what kinds of writing are done by a Venezuelan engineer working in Venezuela for a Venezuelan firm. Perhaps in the world of technology, the cultural differences that exist in other areas do not occur. Before advising a foreign national to take such a writing course, however, one would like to see some information that proves the helpfulness of such writing in his home country.

There is another reason for suggesting that technical writing courses for foreign students need to be quite different from those now offered for natives: the real world in which the foreign technical or scientific student must survive is that of the educational system of the U.S. university. That this experience is a relatively short one does not mean that it is not real. (Indeed the experience is a "real" one for the U.S. student as well, and our investigations show that many students in scientific or technical areas are not receiving the training in writing skills that they need to complete their educations successfully.)

In a TOEFL Research Report entitled *The Performance of Non-Native Speakers of English on TOEFL and Verbal Aptitude Tests*, the results of the performance of foreign students on TOEFL, GRE, SAT, and TSWE (the Test of Standard Written English) are compared. The purpose of the study was to find if and under what circumstances the scores of foreign students on GRE, SAT, and TSWE are meaningful. Included in the report, however, is information that demonstrates that foreign students enter our universities without the writing skills necessary for equal competition with natives. The mean score on TOEFL for the undergraduates tested was 502. The mean score for this same group on the TSWE was 28 compared to the mean of 42.35 (out of a possible 60) for the native speakers of English. Thus foreign students at the admittable level of 500—for most colleges and universities—are far less skilled in writing than the native speakers with whom they will be competing. These numbers give objective support to something that ESL teachers have witnessed for years: few of our students have writing skills as advanced as their other language skills.

Convinced that foreign students need special training, we have begun a series of investigations to document in detail the kinds of writing required by instructors in U.S. technical and scientific programs. In the first step we conducted a survey of engineering faculty at the University of Florida to find out what types of writing they most frequently require of graduate students (all graduate students, not just foreign students) (West and Byrd, 1980). The results of the survey are, in sum, that the most frequently assigned types of writing for graduate students in engineering are examinations, quantitative problems, and reports. The next most frequently assigned are homework and papers (term and publication). The least frequently assigned are progress reports and proposals.

One irony of these findings is that they suggest that the freshman English class is the only place where a student going into graduate work in a scientific or technical area is getting help with the writing skills he needs for success—for knowledge of the essay would provide a basis on which to build term papers and publication papers. Technical writing classes usually include a minimal amount of practice in converting technical reports into papers and articles.

The literature of technical writing is full of denunciations of freshman English as useless and the essay as a waste of time. From the point of view of those who are preparing the student for his professional future that is, perhaps, true. The essay is, however, extremely relevant to the student's survival in the real world of the university. In the years that stretch between the freshman English class and entrance into the marketplace (especially for the student who gets a graduate degree immediately after finishing a bachelor's), the university student will be required to write many essay examinations and term papers (both of which are, after all, extended essays involving specialized rules of evidence).

It would be unrealistic to argue that the university is out-of-step with the "real world" and should immediately change so that more proposals and progress reports are written and the essay abandoned. Whether or not the training given by a university has direct relevance for a student's work on a job, the university experience is a necessary rite-of-passage through which young people must go before the modern technological world will certify them as qualified to move on a certain social and economic level. Thus the skills needed to survive in the university are valuable for the future of the student. Without them, the student has to accept a future on a very different level.

Traditional technical writing courses, in focusing on the multiple readers in industry, fail also to help students with the kinds of audiences that the student will write for while still in the university. Stevenson (1978) suggests a matrix to use in judging technical writing courses and programs in terms of their completeness in covering all of the possible types of technical writing. The vertical axis of the matrix lists the four audiences—self, one reader, many readers (homogeneous group), and many readers (diverse group). The horizontal axis uses the three purposes of writing—to inform, to affect, and to effect. Thus an owner's manual for a car would fit in the matrix as an example of writing to instruct a diverse group. The university student most often is writing for an audience of one—the instructor. But for what purpose? Surely the writing of most students in most situations involves all three of the purposes given by Stevenson: although a student will seldom be teaching his teacher anything new, he will be teaching him about himself. That is, one purpose the student should have is to demonstrate to the instructor that he, the student, is intelligent and diligent. The student is, therefore, also trying to affect the instructor—the student is selling himself and his ideas to the teacher. He wants the teacher to feel good about him and his work. Finally, it is a very rare student who is not trying to influence the grade and any other reward in the teacher's power to bestow. And teachers are powerful influences on a student's future—controlling scholarships, fellowships, admission to graduate programs, paper publication, introductions to important people, letters of recommendation, reports to sponsors, etc.

If we accept that the English-of-the U.S.-university (English for Academic Purposes) is a genuine need of foreign students hoping to get U.S. academic degrees, we must find definite answers to a number of questions about the written English of the academic world:

1. What kind of writing is done on examinations by students in scientific and technical programs?
2. What kind of writing is done on homework?
3. What does a graduate professor mean when he says "term paper"?
4. What does an engineering professor mean when he says that foreign students have problems with sentence structure or with grammar or with vocabulary?

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THE PURPOSE OF TECHNICAL WRITING

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5. What differences exist between the writing required of upper division undergraduates (working in their majors) and graduate students?
6. What kinds of writing, if any, go with quantitative problems?
7. What volume of written work is demanded in undergraduate and graduate classes in technical and scientific fields?
8. Are foreign students aware of the importance of written work at a U.S. university?
9. Do professors notice errors more in hand-written papers than in typed papers? (How much influence does bad handwriting have on grades? The questions could be anything but trivial for an Iranian or an Arabic student.)

Special courses in composition for foreign students in technical or scientific fields at U.S. universities are needed for two reasons:

(1) There are significant differences in writing skills between U.S. and foreign students. Not only do foreign students come from different academic training than U.S. students, but foreign students are also considered admissible to U.S. universities on the basis of reading and listening abilities that usually are far more advanced than their writing skills.

(2) The concerns that have been identified as significant by the field of technical writing in the U.S. are not those which are needed for survival in the university, since that field has taken as its purpose the training of technicians and scientists for the U.S. government and industry.

Together, these differences in skills and needs imply that the English of Science and Technology is, for foreign students, more accurately termed the English of Academic Purposes (for Students of Science and Technology).

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THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING THE MELODY OF A LANGUAGE

by Shakti Datta
Educational Solutions Inc.

Words and their correct sequence are essential components of a language. Their appropriate use allows one to express one's thoughts, feelings and perceptions. The proper use of another essential component—the melody of the language—enables one to be "expressive" in that language.

This insight must, in a non-verbal and a non-intellectual form, have been actively present in all of us at the time we taught ourselves our mother tongue. We must also have known, intuitively, that we needed to work with precision on our vocal apparatus in order to "embellish" our voice with the melody of the language of our environment. We must have known that our early attempts were no measure of whether or not we could acquire the right melody. It must have been—in an empirical sense—a part of our awareness that improved articulation is the result of persistent attempts at approximation.

That is why we neither felt frustration nor gave up, but kept on trying. We worked diligently yet effortlessly. We made mistakes and remained nonjudgmental towards ourselves. We allowed ourselves time to correct our mistakes and to practice so that we could function spontaneously in areas not yet mastered by us. All of us, all over the world, own the melody of our mother tongue as an integral part of our speech. We must have done the "right things" in teaching ourselves—and in learning—our first language.

Implications for Teaching

The implications of these observations are of significance in language teaching. The following are some of the ways in which my approach to teaching a second language has been affected by them:

1. I consider those who come to me to learn a language as being equipped with the capacity to work on themselves and therefore as capable of learning the melody of a language which is new to them.

2. It is my responsibility to bring learners into contact with their own functionings so that, along with acquiring new words, they learn to give their utterances a new melody by making the required changes in their functionings.

3. It would be a mistake on my part to expect perfection from the start, but it is equally wrong to conclude that the melody of the target language is beyond the grasp of learners and that teaching it may therefore be left aside.

4. A sensitivity for the new melody is best developed when:

(a) teaching helps learners become aware of what to do with themselves to produce utterances which carry the right melody;

(b) learners are given ample practice so that they gain facility and can become spontaneously right;

(c) learners' mistakes are utilized for enhancing their learning;

(d) each learner is given the opportunity to discover and internalize the criteria for the right melody.

Working with students on the melody of the target language, in terms of sensitivity, allows the students to feel the reality of the new language in their flesh, for it is indeed quite literally in their flesh that they make the changes that are necessary in order to sense and own the new melody.

Components of "Melody"

Melody includes pronunciation, intonation, stresses, pauses and ups and downs of the voice. Learning these various facets of the new melody means being intimately in contact with the muscle tone of one's lips, one's tongue, one's vocal cords, and so on. It requires knowing how much energy to place in one's breath, and at what points in one's speech, in order to produce the desired results. It requires sensing when to run the words together and when to pause, when to let the voice rise and when to let it fall. In essence, making the melody of a new language a part of one's sensitivity is equivalent to learning to create new patterns of sounds through the distribution of one's energy. This can be a very exciting activity if played as a subtle game of energy distribution over the "somatic instrument" one owns. It is rewarding too, because the melody of a language—an objective reality—when transformed into the quality of one's voice, undoubtedly adds elegance to one's self-expression and helps to convey meaning better.

Non-native speakers may not be able to sound exactly like natives. But the speech of non-natives can certainly express their awareness of the melody of the language and their best attempt at respecting this vital aspect of the language, as they use it. This can be achieved by incorporating in one's teaching precise techniques designed to facilitate learning of the melody of the target language creatively.

From *Idiom*, February 1979

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IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
New York University

A NOTIONAL APPROACH TO "FRANKENSTEIN"

by Helen Fragiadakis
U.C. Berkeley Extension

When I first planned to use drama in an intermediate Listening/Speaking class, my major goals were to introduce new vocabulary and to provide a context in which pronunciation could be practiced. My focus, though, changed after I read the play "Frankenstein" from *Six Stories for Acting from American and English Literature* (ELS International Inc., Portland, Oregon, 1976).

As I read the play, I realized that it provided an excellent context for describing what was transpiring among the speakers in terms not only of information, but of emotions, disbelief, shock, impatience, support, etc. For example, "I have been able to . . . though I wish now that I never had" could be interpreted as 'regret'; "But that's impossible" could be interpreted as an expression of 'disbelief'; and "Victor, what is it? Have you seen a ghost?" could be interpreted as an expression of shock and concern. I then checked D. A. Wilkins' *Notional Syllabuses* and found such expressions as regret, disbelief, etc. listed as "categories of communicative function." According to Wilkins, "The categories are based on the meaning that arises from the fundamental distinction, very important for language teaching, between what we *do* through language and what we report by means of language" (p. 41). I thought that it would be exciting to change my original goals and use the play only as a tool which would provide examples of these categories, which I called "messages".

But then I was struck by one particular sentence of Wilkins' regarding the category of personal emotions: "It need perhaps only be pointed out that to know the word 'anger' is not to know how to express anger" (p. 54). At this point I had to define my objectives for myself, and decided that I wanted my students to learn to identify and label some of the categories of communicative function expressed in the play, and to learn and use various expressions (not necessarily from the play) that serve to communicate these messages. (Wilkins' categories of communicative function are listed and defined on pages 41-54.)

In class we first read the play and discussed the new vocabulary. As the students got the feeling of the drama, they were able to describe what was being expressed ("messages") in their own words. We then labeled the messages: impatience, regret, disbelief, anger, etc. Next, I gave the students two handouts, one which listed expressions from the play next to the messages. For example:

impatience: "Ssh! Let him continue."
support: "Please go on. . ."
guilt: "I've neglected everyone."

The other handout listed common expressions (not necessarily from the play) used by native speakers to express the messages. For example:

impatience: I can't wait!
Hurry up!
Put a move on!

shock, surprise, disbelief:

What's going on!
Oh my God!
I can't believe my eyes (ears)!
It can't be!

It was pointed out that these expressions often had overlapping messages. For instance, a person who is impatient might also be angry, depending on the situation.

The students were then given a list of situations for dialogues to be written in pairs, which were to include some of the new expressions from both handouts. For example: (1) A flying saucer has landed. Two people express *disbelief*. (2) A student has been rejected by a university. S/he expresses *disappointment* to a friend who expresses *concern* and *support*. (3) A child begs for a new toy and mother or father expresses *impatience*, and then gives in (*concedes*). (4) The driver of a car feels it is *urgent* to drive fast. The passenger expresses *caution*. This activity was extremely successful and enjoyable. Students commented on each other's effectiveness in communicating particular messages, and they had practice in listening to and using the new expressions in different contexts.

A third handout contained a list of the most useful idioms used in the play. Students were asked to write dialogues using some of the idioms, again in pairs. After the dialogues were performed in class, the audience was asked to point out which messages had been expressed.

I did not expected or want the students to learn all the vocabulary from the three handouts. The students were always given choices when writing dialogues, and through their own use of some expressions and in listening to other dialogues, some of the expressions were retained, even if only for recognition. I did, however, expect the students to learn the labels for "messages", and throughout the quarter, when any situation arose which expressed messages we studied, I asked the students, "What is this person expressing? How does he feel?"; in other words, this work can be easily and quite naturally reviewed. For example, every day at five minutes to twelve one of my students packed up his books and sat on the edge of his seat. He claimed that he was hungry. He became known as "impatient Eduardo".

For the midterm I asked myself how I could possibly test the students on such work. It occurred to me that pictures would be very effective, and I cut out pictures from magazines. Next to each I wrote a few lines which expressed particular messages. For instance, next to a melancholy Woody Allen, I wrote: "Stop laughing at me! You're going to make me go mad (an expression from "Frankenstein"). Just leave me alone, O.K.!!!" The students were asked to write in the message expressed: anger. In another section of the exam I had cartoons which showed various situations where our messages were being expressed. In one, a man in a strange flying contraption tipped his hat to a man looking at him from a window in a skyscraper. The students were told: "The man in the window can't believe what he sees. Write a dialogue between the two men." Student responses were extremely humorous and contained expressions studied in class.

The play, "Frankenstein", played an essential, yet secondary role in our class activities. Any play (or even dialogue) can provide a context upon which a "notional approach" can be built. My original goals, to introduce new vocabulary and to practice pronunciation were still achieved in this way, while the students learned to define what had been actually communicated in the play. As an added and most important prize, they themselves experienced communicating some of these messages too.

SHOPPING FOR COMMUNITY CONTACTS

by Jean McConochie
Pace University

Introducing foreign vistiors, or new residents, to varied aspects of American life is a normal component of English language programs in the United States. It is sometimes difficult, however, to devise ways in which students may be led to make their own discoveries, rather than simply accept the word of a teacher. Another program goal which may also be difficult to achieve is to have students use the language they are learning in relatively unstructured situations outside the classroom.

Both of these goals are part of the Japanese Teachers Program (JTP) sponsored by the Council on International Educational Exchange. Since 1968, the Council has offered an eight-week summer program through which a Japanese teacher may come to the United States for four weeks of intensive language study on a university campus, followed by travel and an extended homestay with an American family.

The teachers come, as they say, "to brush up their English." In effect, this means that they want to meet and talk with as many Americans as possible, for in Japan they find few opportunities to use English outside the classroom. Their instructors are equally interested in having the Japanese move beyond the safety of classroom English to less structured "real" language and in having them see more of American life than that represented by the academic community. These interests converge happily in the "errand."

Origin of the Errand

The idea originated with Dr. Virginia French Allen, who suggested it at a JTP planning session in 1969. Gary Gabriel, director of the JTP at Rutgers University that summer, elaborated the framework, developing the "errand assignment," as it came to be known. Staff members, of whom I was one, collaborated in inventing the errand topics and editing the final reports for duplicating.[1] The following summer the errand assignment was used in two Japanese Teachers Programs—one at Fordham University, directed by Mr. Gabriel, and one held in Moorestown, New Jersey, under the sponsorship of Temple University, co-directed by Dr. Allen and Dr. Donald S. Knapp.

Twenty-one errands were devised for the 42 participants in the Rutgers program. The assignments were given to teams of two—an interviewer and a reporter. In each case the more passive member of the team was assigned the more active role. He was responsible for doing all the talking required by the assignment, though he was allowed to ask the reporter for help during the interview if that became necessary.

The reporter was responsible for taking notes and turning in a written report. The format for these reports was left unspecified beyond the requirement that the Japanese teachers indicate when and where they went and that they describe what happened. Assigned at the end of the first week, the reports were due in written form by the final class meeting; however, teams gave oral reports on their errands as they were completed, since the program participants were eager to share their adventures.

Two "Old Boys" at the Florist's

The more fluent teams were given the more complicated errands, and vice versa —as the teachers themselves realized in at least one case. Two of the older men in the Rutgers program were given the task of going to a local florist to find out what flowers are most popular in the United States, what special meaning different varieties of flowers have, and how much flowers cost. Mr. Watanabe reported on the questions posed and then added,

> Mr. Gabriel was kind enough to offer an easy errand of going to a florist's to us two old boys who are are not good at English conversation, but in fact this errand was not so easy for us.

He explained that neither he nor Mr. Tanaka had been interested in flowers in Japan and that neither knew the Japanese names of any flowers except cherry blossoms and chrysanthemums. "But anyway," he concluded—with typical Japanese grace—"we are very glad to have done our duty and acquired some knowledge of flowers."

Going into a florist's to ask questions rather than to make a purchase obviously required that the teachers explain their assignment. This was also the case in several other errands. For example, Mr. Suzuki (No. 1 of the three Suzuki's in the program) was allowed to identify the team's mission when he and Mr. Toda went to a local stockbroker with a hypothetical $1,000 to invest.

> When we entered the office, we found several clerks, some of them watching the ticker-tape and others working with the phone in their hands at the desk, which looks like a booth in a language lab. Then we told a young lady at the information desk of our intention and she introduced Mr. Marder, a tall, kind man, to us.

The salesman gave them a list of recommended stocks and "wiregrams" giving figures on individual issues.

> For interest we selected Niagara Mohawk Power out of the list, considering the safety and pursuit of profits. For speculation, we chose Union Oil of California, because a wiregram said that the firm had drilled two wells in Alaska and they are expected to bring about a great profit. We told him of our selections and asked for his opinion. He said we have an expert's eye right at the beginning and recommended both of them with confidence.

The men "purchased" 26 shares of NMP at 17⅞ and 10 shares of UOC at 51⅝. (Union Oil is up a few points at the moment; Niagara Mohawk hovers between 16 and 18. So much for expert eyes.)

Furnishing a Living Room

Another pair were asked to find out the cost of furnishing a Western style living room. When a furniture store owner expressed surprise at their errand, Mr. Yoshida told him, "with a proud look," to quote the reporter, "that it is a most unique way of learning English created by our honorable instructor, Mr. Gabriel." The teachers' pride in their accomplishment was matched by their imaginative pleasure in the task, made vivid by Mr. Murata's use of the historical present.

> Next we go into a pottery store, because we want to have a clock in our living room. . . . We think we want to add a TV set in our room, too, so we decide to buy one. In this store, however, we can't find any TV sets except those made in Japan. Besides, the prices of them are all the same—$99.95. Anyway, we buy one.
>
> When we walk along the street, we find a fruit garland and buy one. We think it is good for the decoration of the room. The most expensive prices for the living room furniture total $4,887.95, and the cheapest, $597.75.

Diamond Rings

A final example of an errand that required self-identification is "The Engagement Ring." Mr. Tsuchiya and Mr. Tashiro, both in their 30's and married, drew the assignment of pricing engagement rings and finding out how the cost was determined. Two clerks in a New Brunswick jewelry store graciously showed them many rings and explained the factors of carat, cut, color, and clarity. Mr. Tsuchiya, a born story-teller as it happens, concluded by giving us a rare glimpse of his inner thoughts.

> On our way out of the shop, we decided to choose a diamond ring priced at $675 as an engagement ring. The bright summer sun blinded us. I thought to myself, "If only I were 10 years younger!"

Remedy for a Sore Throat

For other errands, the Japanese teachers were specifically instructed *not* to say that they were on an assignment for a class. Rather they had to complete their task in as natural a manner as possible. One such errand was to go to a drug

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store and buy Kleenex and a cold remedy for an imaginary sick friend. (One of the instructors had agreed to reimburse the shoppers to the extent of $2 and to find a use for the purchases.) Mr. Hazama reported:

Suzuki [No. 3] asked the man behind the counter to give him a packet of medicine for a cold, adding that a friend of his had caught cold and was in bed. The man led us to the stand where various kinds of medicine were displayed. He asked Suzuki about the condition of his friend. At this inquiry Suzuki was a little bewildered, but he contrived to answer that his friend had a sore throat.

American Barbers

Even greater ingenuity was required of Mr. Sano, who was to interview a local barber about his business. He and Mr. Takanami went into a shop, expecting to engage the barber in conversation while having their hair cut. They were relieved to find no other customers in the shop, but relief changed to unease when the barber remained expressionless as he cut their hair. Suddenly inspiration came.

After each of us had a haircut, Sano immediately said, "We have become much more handsome than before." Then the barber smiled. Sano continued to say, "In fact, I have a barber friend in Japan, and he asked me to ask about American barbers." The barber said, "With pleasure," as his reply.

He answered their questions about how one becomes a barber and how long he had been one. However, he demurred when asked about his volume of business, saying only that many Rutgers students have their hair cut in his shop—"We were dodged cleverly," Mr. Takanami admitted. He also noted that while they had heard of the high price of manual labor in the States, they were amazed to pay $2.50 for a 15-minute haircut. For considerably less than that in Japan, Takanami remarked, a man could have the "full course" of shampoo, haircut, shave, and massage. (A haircut alone would cost the equivalent of two cups of coffee.) Discovering the prices and availability of basic services was a useful aspect of the errands, for it gave the Japanese teachers an idea of what their American counterparts' seemingly astronomical salaries mean in purchasing power.

No American-Made Souvenirs

A related feature was introducing our Japanese visitors to the kinds of goods that can be purchased here, and letting them see the ubiquity of Japanese-made goods. Mr. Haruta and Mr. Kanaya were asked to find souvenirs to take back to Japan. They first tried the gift section of a department store, but saw nothing that isn't also available in Japan—except for a $12 coin collection, too expensive an item for their purpose. A policeman who had shown them the way to the store had also pointed out Woolworth's, which they decided to try next.

In this store we found many Japanese-made articles which are all a little more expensive than in the stores of Japan. We again asked the clerks whether they had typical articles of America. They all hesitated and one of them said, "What about hot dogs?" with laughter. One clerk recommended to us American flags and America's oldest model cars. But to our regret, they were also what we might find even in Japan.

The Woolworth's clerk suggested a nearby hardware store, where they found "seal collection—New Jersey, patriotic, Civil War—for 25 cents each." Mr. Haruta's conclusion was perceptive: "On this errand we recognized that America is too young a country for us to find her typical articles without difficulties."

Finding a Store

The conversations involved in locating an appropriate store proved to be a bonus in a number of the errands and suggests that the instructions need not be too explicit. In fact one of the most successful errand assignments of the Fordham University JTP[2] was for two of the women to buy iron-on seam binding. Having no idea of what that item might be, the women tried various stores and were finally referred to the neighborhood sewing machine dealer. However, no one realized that in asking for "an iron-on seam binding," the women didn't know what they were looking for; so when the Singer clerk said that they didn't carry seam binding, Miss Habu and Miss Taguchi were stumped. Imagine their triumphal delight when, stopping in a local drugstore for a Coke one evening after an excursion to Manhattan, they found seam tape in a notions rack. They marveled at the American need for such an item, and each bought several packages as souvenirs for their friends at home!

Even when the site for performing the errand is specified clearly, the participants may have a certain amount of adventure in finding it. A visit to the Rutgers Agricultural Experiment Station, for example, required asking directions of several people and riding on the campus bus. (The errand was to find out the average annual rainfall in New Brunswick; the research data confirmed our suspicions that we were in the midst of an exceptionally wet year.)

At the Police Station

However, perhaps the most exciting errand, in terms of tracking down information, was the seemingly prosaic assignment of inquiring at the local police station about regulations for keeping dogs as pets. Mr. Suzuki (No. 2) questioned four people before he and Mr. Nagashima located the police station. Once there, they chanced on a policeman who had been stationed in Japan after World War II. He spent a long time answering their questions and wrote out "veterinarian" for Mr. Nagashima, who was understandably troubled by the spelling. Then the policeman suggested that they might also want to visit the SPCA—and arranged for his Japanese visitors to be taken there in a patrol car. It was the talk of the program for days.

The "dog" errand was suggested by the number of dogs running loose in New Brunswick and by a suspicion that the American preoccupation with pets would seem strange to a Japanese. Quite a different use of the police station was made by Drs. Allen and Knapp in the Temple University JTP: they sent a team to find out how many crimes had been committed since the Japanese teachers' arrival.

Unexpected Bonus

One Rutgers errand grew out of a genuine need, which suggests another source of errand ideas. Mrs. Kagiya lost the crown of her watch and asked the program director where she could have it replaced. Seizing the opportunity, he changed her errand assignment to one similar to the engagement ring errand—to find the cheapest and most expensive watches at a jewelry store and to find out what determined the cost. Mrs. Kagiya and Miss Kaji went to a local jeweler (not the one with the rings) and asked about having the watch repaired. A 3-day wait and a $3 charge, they were told. When they inquired about new watches, they were turned over to another clerk. After he had shown the women many watches and discussed the differences in price and quality, Mrs. Kagiya explained the assignment behind her questions. The salesman, like the policeman, had been in Japan. He surely had pleasant memories of Japanese hospitality, for he arranged to have Mrs. Kagiya's watch fixed on the spot and for a dollar less than the original quotation. He is undoubtedly still receiving Christmas cards from his two customers.

Not all errands were equally productive, of course. Assignments to find the admission requirements for Rutgers and postage rates to Japan may have occasioned pleasant meetings but resulted in brief and dull reports. The least successful errand of all, through no fault of the team, was that performed by Mr. Sakai and Mr. Shimokawa. Here is their report, in its entirely:

After lessons were over, both of us went straight to the railroad station. At the sta-

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tion three clerks seemed to be very busy. So we had to wait for a couple of minutes, and then Shimokawa asked one of them the first question, "How often does the train go to New York?" The clerk didn't answer the question but handed him a copy of a timetable, and to the next questions, "Is the seat reserved or not?" and "Where is the New York Station?" he just answered, "Not. 33rd Street and 8th Avenue." That's all.

Clearly, these were poorly conceived errands. The assigned questions had simple, straightforward answers which offered no opening for conversation. And there was little possibility for imaginative treatment of the topic. A successful errand assignment need not be complex, but it should have an open-ended solution.

Cooperation From Townspeople

The courtesy of the New Brunswick townspeople in responding to questions that may have struck them as bizarre was gratifying—and perhaps unusual. JTF program directors who used the errand assignment in the summer of 1970 felt it prudent to inform the local merchants about the overall program before the arrival of the Japanese. The Temple program also introduced the idea of two errand assignments, so that each participant could have a turn as questioner and as reporter. Since a week is sufficient for the completion of an errand, it is certainly possible to do two in a 4-week program. For both the Rutgers and Fordham JTPs, the errand reports were duplicated for distribution to all the participants at the end of the 4-week session.

What accounts for the success of the errands? First, the assignment is sufficiently structured that students in the intermediate range of language proficiency can succeed. Second, the errands, if cleverly devised, provide an opportunity for independent discovery of some aspect of the host culture. Third, the errands provide an opportunity for meaningful use of language outside the classroom—the ultimate aim of any language program. Finally, as the participants' reports demonstrate, the errands are fun for everyone involved.

FOOTNOTES

1 The quotations included in this paper are drawn from these "Reports of Errand Activities by Japanese Teachers of English, Rutgers University, Summer '69."
2 Summer 1970.

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THE TIMBUKTU METHOD[1]

by Clea Shay

The profession is once more all a dither over rumors of still another teaching method to reach our shores on the reed and papyrus vessel captained by one of our most trusted discoverers, D. Ed Ideah. This is, of course, not the first method introduced by Ideah. My earlier paper (1978g) chronicles in some detail his elucidation of the ill-formulated concepts by European scholars of the second half of the 20th century, and again my later paper (1979n) demonstrates the source of these concepts in the medieval secular grammarians of Moravia. To summarize only a few: the Aix-la-Chapelle Method (1948);[2] the Nice (France) Method (mistakenly referred to in the U.S. as the Nice ((good)) Method);[3] the Carthage Method (1961);[4] the Samarkand Approach (1966);[5] the Woodstock Method (c. 1972);[6] and finally the Watergate Method (1974).[7]

I merely mention a few of the more dramatic entries in the applied linguistics lottery to illustrate the credibility which Ideah brings to his interpretation of this vigorously challenging new concept in language teaching.

In his usual fashion, Ideah has clarified the murky metaphysical meanderings of still another non-speaker of English by putting them into simple straightforward American educationese so that even our primary bilingual teachers can understand them. The text is available for every mother's son [Dear Editor, If that is sexist, please edit. I can't take another slur against my supposedly anti-feminine remarks made in all innocence twenty years ago.] so I will not comment on the style of the work but only expand on a few of the areas which—in the manuscript graciously shared by the publisher—require further explica[illegible] In the hands of a master teacho[illegible] classroom is quiet but alive, passi[illegible] but active, cognitive but physical, a magnificant blend of all we know about the way children learn languages. I do have some reservations about how effective the method might be with adults.[9] In fairness to Ideah, I should report that I have seen *him* using the method quite successfully with highly motivated, job-guaranteed teenagers, with up to as many as *six* students in a classroom!

The method is deceptively simple. The students sit in rows at individual desks—any similar flat-surface will do—with texts in front of them. The text is a passage from some classical work in the target language.[10] Unusual or difficult words in the text are cleverly printed in boldfaced type and explained *on the same page* in simple language already learned. The texts are quite short —we know what ten-year-olds' attention spans are like—and often illustrated with photographs which are full of insights into the text. One can almost "read" the picture. Of course, this is not the method, only the material.

The method consists of the children reading the passage silently for a short time. Then the teacher asks each student, randomly, to read a sentence or two of the text. The teacher corrects the student's pronunciation as he reads along so that the student gets a great deal of individual practice. Then the student explains, in the language of the class, what he read to the rest of the class. If he fails to get the meaning from the text, the teacher helps explain. After the paspage is completed in this manner, usually after about two days, the teacher reads the lesson in its entirety and explains it again, thus affording the class a great deal of repetition.

I have oversimplified of course.[11]

The woes brought to our classrooms by both the Woodstock and the Watergate Methods can only be countered by Timbuktu black magic. [Dear Editor, Is that racist? If so, substitute ". . . countered by the contributions of a new and vital communicative methodology such as Timbuku."] It would also appear to be a more likely recipient of government funding in the future.

[1] Referred to in its earlier primitive form as the Katmandu Method. Now rid of its naive humanistic orientation it is rigidly systematized on socio-scientific principles.

[2] The year of my high school graduation.

[3] This error was repeatedly pointed out to the profession by Seldon Wong, Jr. (1954, 1955, 1956, 1957).

[4] Resoundingly attacked by everyone on this side of the Atlantic but still endorsed by the French.

[5] Ideah was completely off base here, of course. He obviously did not know his approach from his flip flop. The Samarkand is nothing but a series of classroom exercises which have no unity other than illustrating the use of language in social contexts. Clearly they were not meant to *teach* anything.

[6] The only genuine American method of the group, although its origin is obscure.

[7] The latter was advantageously attacked by Oiley, 1974; Plum-Cillee, 1975; and Bravely and Week, 1976. The fact that each continues to flog the dead method clearly demonstrates the paucity of ideas in the post-Watergate era.

[8] One of the features of the Timbuktu Method is that it can be used with success by teachers who despise teaching. I have seen Ideah give such a demonstration himself on more than one occasion.

[9] In a forthcoming article "From Timbuktu to Tippicanoe" I will demonstrate how the method can be modified and specified to suit adults learning English in Indiana prisons north of U.S. highway 40.

[10] In the English class I observed, the text was from Thackery, a poor choice for ten-year-olds, I thought. In the German class they were reading Goethe. I think other people's classics are so much more classical, don't you?

[11] See my forthcoming article "Tintern Abbey by Timbuktu" which illustrates the technique, in full detail, for the third week in grade six. □

A GENERAL SURVEY OF ENGLISH TEACHING IN THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

by Yang Su Ying

On the plane from San Francisco to St. Louis, a passenger in the next seat mistook me for a Japanese. He was greatly surprised to learn that in fact I was Chinese. Curious to know where I learned English, he wanted to know what I was going to do in the U.S. His eyes widened when I told him my field was English literature, and that I was going for further study of English and American literature at Washington University in St. Louis. Soon it was my turn to be astonished by his questions: "Are people allowed to learn English in your country? Since I have heard that western literature is considered decadent by your people, how is it possible for you to come here to study English and American literature?"

Misunderstanding has wedged its way between our two peoples owing to our long separation from each other. I hope the following brief remarks will be of some help in eliminating such misconceptions.

Today English is the most popular foreign language in China. The learning of English begins in the third or fourth year of elementary school. Usually it requires four or five hours a week. But this is only the beginning. The learning of foreign languages is also an important requirement in secondary education. Moreover a foreign language course is compulsory even in universities. In order to meet the enthusiastic demand of others outside of the school, there are English teaching programs at different levels broadcast by radio and on TV, with hundreds of thousands of self-learners. Usually three hours of classes are broadcast each week.

In the universities, English may be taken either as a major or a non-major.

Students majoring in English undertake their training in departments of foreign languages in universities or at one of the foreign language institutes.

University students majoring in English are required not only to master the English language itself but also to be able to work in the field of literature or to train as teachers. Consequently the departments of foreign languages in such universities as Peking University in Beijing, Zhongshan University in Guangzhou, and Futan University of Shanghai put most of their emphases on British and American literature, in addition to the language. At such institutions many other courses are offered as well, such as the geography and history of Britain, the United States and other English-speaking countries, the development of English and American literature, and courses in particular British and American writers like Shakespeare, Dickens, Mark Twain, etc. Courses in linguistics are sometimes also found in the curriculum.

Foreign language institutes like Peking Foreign Language Institute, Shanghai Foreign Language Institute and Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute produce graduates who are expected to find their professions as interpreters or translators. Thus the institutes place stress on spoken language, or oral skills. Most of the study curriculum is devoted to language practice: listening, speaking, and all kinds of drills. Nevertheless, there are some courses available in the relevant literature.

Students often have outside class activities related to English studies, including performances in English, such as singing, story-telling, plays and comic dialogues, or "cross-talks". In doing so, they improve their English speaking ability. Very often they attend presentations by native English speakers who happen to be teaching in the university or staying there for a short visit.

Usually students in foreign language institutes are given their assignments to work as interpreters or translators some time before they graduate, while those who are expecting to be language teachers are given opportunities for practice teaching in the high schools under the supervision of a regular teacher.

For non-English majors, 240 to 280 hours are devoted to the study of a foreign language during the college course, depending on the particular arrangement of each university. The requirement for such non-major students is mainly the development of reading ability in the target language. Most students are able to read only one and a half pages of English per hour after completion of such study. They are required to follow only simple spoken English and to speak very simple sentences. If they can write, so much the better.

Teaching methods and approaches within each of the institutes or universities vary from level to level. For elementary pupils, that is, for children, only the direct method is used. No grammar is touched upon. For university students, especially for non-English majors who will only be required to read, the traditional translation method is most commonly employed, with pattern drills as an aid. For students majoring in English, however, pattern drills and the situational communicative method, as well as the traditional translation method are all used to meet the different needs of the students and to adequately prepare them for their future jobs. For these English major students what most concerns their teachers is how to provide them challenges to force them to speak English. Taking the situational communicative method as an example, the teachers try to create all kinds of situations which will force the students to communicate amongst themselves. In such cases, pictures are often used for illustration, and in order to stimulate the students' imaginations and make them utilize orally the vocabulary they have acquired. For example, the teacher will distribute pictures to the whole class, one to each student. The pictures are generally similar and are divided into exactly matching pairs. Each pair is different from every other pair in a few details. This means that in each group two students will receive exactly the same picture. The teacher then gives the students vocabulary items to describe the pictures. One student is then asked to locate his partner with the matching picture. Thus he has to describe clearly to the group what is in his own picture. Since all the pictures are generally similar, if the student does not know how to describe his own picture accurately, or if his partner cannot recognize what the other is talking about, the partners cannot find each other, or will respond to a wrong partner. In such a class situation every student is motivated and excited. Under these conditions the students learn very well not only how to read but also how to handle the vocabulary related to the pictures.

Almost every university or institute has a language laboratory. Audio-visual aids play an important role in the study of foreign languages in China. Usually there are tape recordings for different courses and levels. But they are mainly for after-class use and practice.

For Chinese students, particularly for university students, English grammar is not difficult since there are many similarities between English and Chinese grammars. The word order and sentence structure are very much alike. Only a few elements require special effort. These are verb conjugation, participles, articles and prepositions, as there is nothing functionally corresponding to these elements in Chinese.

The pronunciation of English sounds is not hard for most Chinese students except the consonants 'θ' and 'ð', as no such sounds exist in Chinese. But for students of some geographic areas, such as Fujian, Guangtong, and Sichuan, who have strong local accents even when they speak Mandarin (the Chinese national language), learning English pronounciation is a painstaking process. In contrast, the students brought up in Shanghai or in Peking have an advantage over others when it comes to Engnunciation is a painstaking process. In lish pronunciation, for the Shanghai except 'θ', and the Peking dialect (Mandarin) is rich in sounds too.

English words that have Chinese

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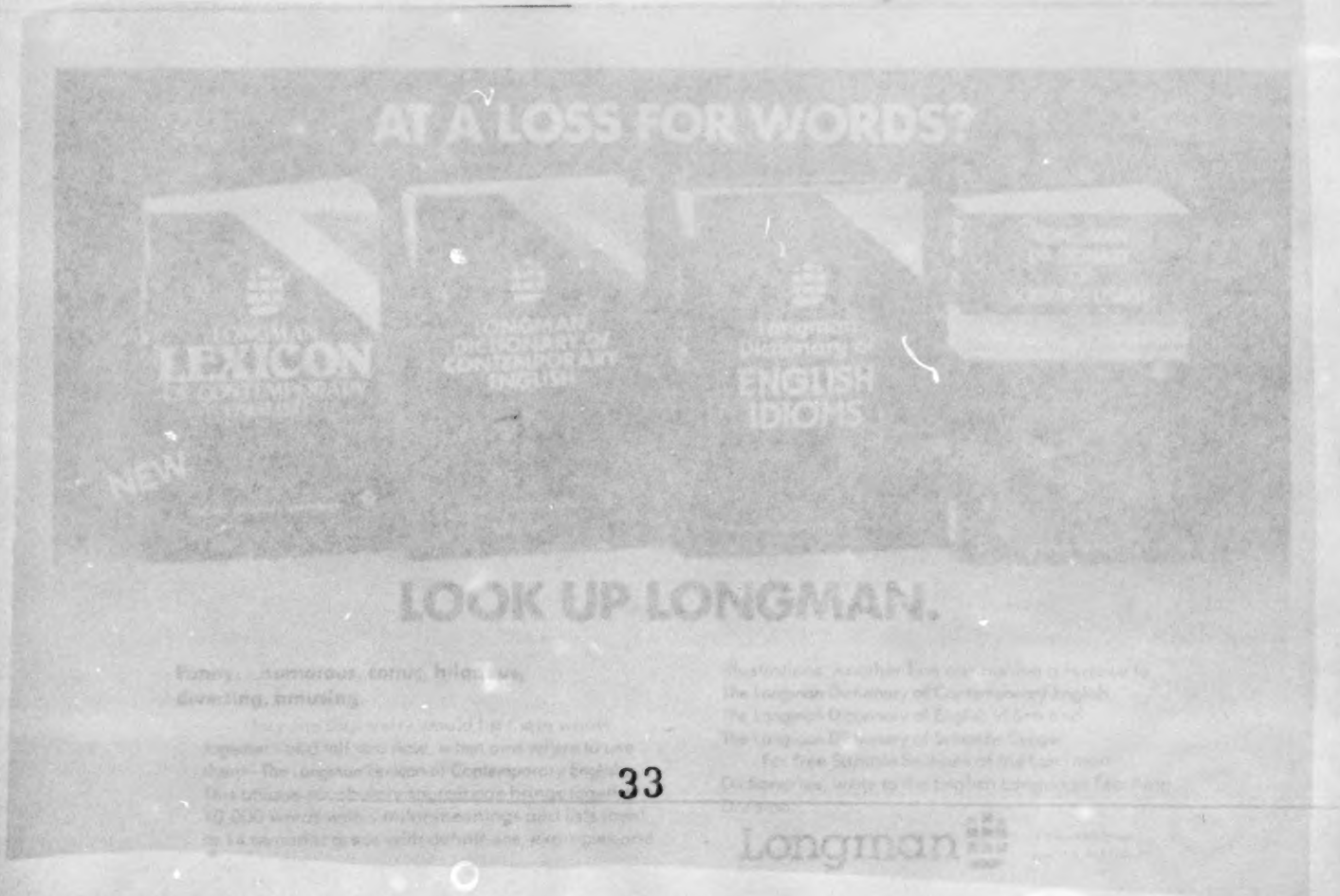
equivalents only need to be committed to memory while those without exact Chinese equivalents require special attention. For instance, the word 'available', which seems very simple to English-speaking people, often puts the teacher to great pains to explain. Scores of examples must be given as illustrations. Everyday vocabulary words such as 'take', 'make', 'get', 'do' are headaches for Chinese students. They are involved in idiomatic usage, and the idioms of a language are always the most difficult for foreign students. Why should it be 'make fun of' instead of 'get fun of' or 'do fun of'? No one, at least no Chinese, can explain. This is most often the case with all foreign language learning.

The problem of the utmost concern to us Chinese teachers of English is how to make our students think in English. Usually when our students try to speak English, they think in Chinese first and then translate literally into English. This leads to a result that the English spoken by the students is something like Chinese, which is known as 'Chinglish' in China. For example, we Chinese never say 'I don't think he will come'. We must say (in Chinese) 'I think he will not come', instead. And the answer to 'You don't have classes today, do you?' would be 'Yes, I do not have classes today.' Our answer to this problem is that an English environment must be created to help students form the habit of directly speaking English instead of translating from Chinese to English word for word what they want to say. We Chinese teachers must somehow provide more opportunities for students to speak with English speakers, such as guests, tourists, teachers and hopefully students from the United States, Britain and other English-speaking countries.

At this moment China faces an acute shortage of experienced teachers, a problem which derives from the growing demand of the society to learn foreign languages. Professors and veteran teachers are getting old and unfortunately teachers of the younger generation are not sufficiently qualified at present to replace them. This is in large measure, the result of the ten-year disturbance in education during the Cultural Revolution. Our young teachers, upon whom our students depend are weak in listening and speaking abilities for lack of practice during those ten years. We must frankly admit that the vocabulary they have is archaic due to the long separation of China from the outer world.

Happily, the present plans of our government restore the emphasis formerly assigned to learning of foreign languages. Today, scholars in the field of foreign languages are trying very hard to improve their own academic qualifications and to upgrade the English ability of the whole population. Still it is not easy to fill the gaping void in a short period of time. We are looking forward to more exchanges of experience, materials and teachers with English speaking countries, especially the United States and Britain. I believe that with the encouragement from the government, the people's thirst for learning and the great efforts of scholars, we will come closer to attaining our goal. □



REFLECTIONS ON THE FIRST WEEKS OF CLASS IN AN E.S.L. PROGRAM

by Janet Martinez-Bernal
Bisbee, Arizona

They come from Bangladesh, from Nigeria, from Thailand, Micronesia and Japan, from Saudi Arabia and Qatar, and daily more than one hundred commute from Mexico, driving across the Arizona highlands to our community college's English Immersion Program. Some of them are barely seventeen years old; others are thirty or more. Some have never before left their homes; others are seasoned world travelers. Some have worked at three jobs at a time for several years to finance their studies here; others are on generous government scholarships. After testing and registration, all are placed in classes, and the initial shared confusion subsides into individual responses to the new environment.

The diversity of our students' reactions to their classes during the first weeks of each session is immense. Their changing perceptions of themselves, their untried skills in English, their varying abilities to cope simultaneously with new food and housing, new teaching styles, a different climate, transportation difficulties, unfamiliar financial transactions and—for many—the constant ache of homesickness: All of these factors can lead to responses that get in the way of an easy adjustment. Manifestations of culture shock are a normal occurrence in the progression of foreign student adjustment; however, the label "culture shock" seems too general to help much in understanding what happens to many students. They undergo a crisis those first few weeks which colors their learning experience and holds them back from their full potential for months afterward.

Four students I have observed during the last two weeks exemplify the range of reactions encountered. They are representative of recurring types of problems, and each case raises issues which have to be resolved again and again if we are to teach successfully.

A. F. tested into the intermediate level. Dissatisfied with that result, he re-tested the following day and placed within a few points of his original score. Angrily, he demanded higher placement, saying that unless he were able to take at least some courses with transferable credit he would be in trouble with his country's educational mission. After reviewing his results on the math placement exam, we allowed him to take a math class and one other transferable course in addition to the English. After more argument, he finally agreed and completed his registration. Then he disappeared, only to resurface on the branch campus in a few days trying to drop the courses he had originally signed up for and enroll in all regular classes. He was discovered when in conversation with an instructor he admitted, "I no understand what you say."

The Provost has informed A. F. that he must either return to the English program or leave the college. However, administrative action does not reach the root of the problem. This student does not believe he really needs language instruction; instead he sees the attempt to meet his needs as an obstacle. How can we convince him that a semester of English is an investment that will pay off in future academic success and that he is headed toward certain failure if he enrolls in regular classes at this stage? That is partially a job for the foreign student advisor, but it also falls to the teachers who see him in class every day to make him realize the importance of what he can learn in their classes, a task in salesmanship that goes beyond technical teacher training.

M. K. is another student who believes that she has been placed in the wrong classes, but her anger has taken an entirely different form. After the first week, she appeared in the director's office with a list of the number of minutes she believed classes had begun late or been dismissed early and pointed out that two instructors had missed an hour each of class (because of flu). Through a translator, she demanded that her teachers compensate for the lost minutes and hours she had paid for by tutoring her privately. (In the same conversation she announced that she would not be in class in the afternoon because she had to go to the bank.) This beginning student can follow a substitution drill accurately but is not capable of answering a simple question (How are you?) in a nonpatterned situation.

Counseling by the foreign student advisor and advice from more experienced students from her country do not help M. K. in her present state of tension and frustration. She won't (or can't) listen now. In the meantime, her attitude has to be met on a daily basis in the classroom by the teachers. How can we help her to learn that more important than keeping account of the minutes paid for is the total experience of living in an English speaking environment, that more important than a correct response in a substitution drill is establishing friendly communication with the people around her?

C. A. has quite a different problem. She already communicates easily in spoken English and now needs to acquire reading and writing skills in order to become self-supporting. She is in an advanced composition class and frequently questions her ability to do the work. She worries about being "too old" to learn new things. It is easy to see how insecure she feels and also very easy to offer the constant encouragement she needs. Here the dilemma is how to maintain the delicate balance between providing the positive comments she seeks and the obligation to offer suggestions that will lead to improvement. At what point does offering encouragement become misleading?

S. R. is also in an advanced composition class. Instead of seeking attention, he shuns it. He is very young, and home is 12,000 miles away. This is his first time studying in a coeducational school, and he finds it embarrassing to have female classmates and instructors. Then he is angry at himself for his embarrassment. He is sharing a small apartment with several other students—also newly arrived from his homeland—and together they are learning to take care of their daily needs independently for the first time in their lives. The out-of-class learning is taking a lot of time, and, at the end of two weeks, he is beginning to make excuses for turning in assignments late. As the semester wears on, curiosity will grow about social life here, especially the activities forbidden at home. How can we help a young and inexperienced student like this one to establish priorities; to what extent is it our responsibility to act as parents?

Other more experienced students can help; so can the foreign student advisor. But in the last analysis it is the teacher who sees the student every day and knows what is happening in his life. Moreover, students often prefer confiding in a teacher whom they know rather than from the less familiar advisor or from other students. How can we teachers better prepare to meet the inevitable responsibility of counseling our students?

Each of the students described here is afraid and under pressure. Teachers observe, want to do what is best and often feel powerless. In our training we learned about the structure of English, about linguistics, about teaching methods; many of us also studied psychology and served internships in various E.S.L. institutes. But nothing we studied has trained us in ways to help avert impending disaster when we see it in the faces and hear it in the voices of our students. Most of us teaching E.S.L. on this campus have been foreign students ourselves, and it is through the memory of our own past confusion and pain that we reach out to our students and speak with patience again and again.

But what of the new teachers, the ones now emerging from our M.A. programs in E.S.L.? Technically well prepared, how many of them have had experiences similar to what their students are living through? How many of them

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have lived, joked and suffered in a second language as their students will? If they haven't, how can we help them to develop the inner resources necessary to understand their students, especially during those critical first weeks of class?

Considering the tremendous impact that "culture shock" in its many forms has on E.S.L. students during their first weeks in our classes, it seems that graduate programs in Teaching English as a Second Language should include a course in intercultural communication, dealing specifically with the situations that lead to personal crises for newly arrived E.S.L. students, giving the prospective teachers some methods of identifying potential problems as well as dealing patiently and sensitively with those problems which arise despite all best efforts. Offering yet another graduate course is hardly a direct solution to the daily problems we face, but eventually it would result in more teachers being prepared to help students cope with their new lives in our classes. Crisis during the first weeks will always be with us, but if we are ready for it, the impact on our students' learning can be lessened. □

EXPECTATION: A CASE OF DISCOMMUNICATION

by James F. Doubleday
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Often students of English have difficulty with the expectations involved in using one form rather than another: the negative question rather than the positive, or *a few* rather than *few*. This kind of choice is particularly troublesome because it may lead to "discommunication" —that is, the parties to the conversation may believe that they understand each other when they are actually communicating opposite meanings. Since they believe they understand each other, they will never attempt to clarify the misunderstanding. Both sides to such an encounter may leave with hurt feelings. And these expressions are not arcane; they are constantly used in teacher-student and business office relationships.

To illustrate the problems involved in using a form that implies a particular expectation, let's begin with a classic case of "discommunication." A student in Iran would often poke his head into our communal office and ask, "Isn't So-and-so here?" Every time, we teachers would feel a momentary surge of annoyance at the calm assumption that the teacher ought to be there at all times for the student's convenience. That was not the student's assumption at all; he was simply translating the question into English as he would normally have made it in Farsi, and in Farsi the negative question implies no particular expectation. But even after we had recognized that fact, we still had difficulty in repressing our annoyance at the seeming assumption implied in the question. We would often respond in a slightly malicious or grieved tone. The student, puzzling that tone out in the hall after a series of such encounters, might well arrive at the conclusion that Americans were indeed a grumpy breed.
Consider the following four questions:

#1 Is the teacher here today?
#2 Isn't the teacher here today?
#3 He's here today, isn't he?
#4 He isn't here today, is he?

The first of these questions has no inherent expectation of one answer rather than another: the speaker is simply asking for information. The speaker of each of the other three sentences is also asking for information, at least if the questions are asked with rising intonation; but the form of each question also implies a particular expectation.

The negative question (#2) implies that the speaker had expected the teacher to be there: In other words, he expected the corresponding affirmative statement ("The teacher is here today") to be true. But something has happened to make him question his own expectation. For example, when he came into the classroom the teacher was not there, even though the class will begin in one minute and this particular teacher is invariably present at least five minutes before class begins. So he asks a friend in surprise, "Isn't the teacher here today?"

One problem with this kind of question—for students with Japanese-language backgrounds, for example—is that although the form of the question depends on the expectation of the questioner, the form of the answer depends solely on the facts of the situation. If the teacher is there, the answer to the question is "Yes, he is," the same as if the question had been asked in the form of #1. This is not predictable. In fact, if the student tries to work out logically what the answer should be, he is likely to come up with "No, he is," an answer that takes account both of the negative form of the question and the facts of the situation, but unfortunately is incorrect for English.

Questions like #3 and #4 are asked for confirmation or reassurance. In both, the speaker expects the statement preceding the tag question to be true; the only difference is that in #3 his expectation is positive, in #4 negative.

Let us consider a situation in which a speaker would ask a question like #3. The teacher has been absent from class for three days because of a bad cold, but the departmental secretary has announced that he would be back the next day. A student in the class, hurrying to be on time, overtakes another student. The first student thinks that the teacher is probably going to be there, partly because of the announcement, partly because his fellow-student is also hurrying to class; but, for reassurance, he asks, "The teacher's here today, isn't he?"

Question #4 has the reverse expectation. A teacher, looking around her class, notices that So-and-so is missing. So-and-so was not looking well on Monday; he had a sore throat, sniffles, and a hacking cough. He was absent Tuesday. This is now Wednesday; the teacher does not really expect him to be in class yet. But, for confirmation of her expectation, she asks, "Mr. So-and-so isn't here today, is he?"

The discussion so far has assumed that the tag questions were asked with rising intonation. With rising intonation, the speaker is not convinced of the truth of her statement. She thinks it is *probably* right, but there is still room for doubt. With falling intonation on the tag question, however, the speaker is convinced of the truth of her statement. She does not in any way expect the answer "No" to #3 or "Yes" to #4, and would be startled and even upset if she did get that answer.

It might seem that, if a speaker is convinced of the truth of her statement, she would not need to ask it as a question. And perhaps not; but it is fairly commonly done. One example I remember is from a P. G. Wodehouse short story. The narrator has engaged a secretary from the Harley Street Secretarial Agency to take dictation. However, he discovers that whenever she sits down with her pencil poised to record his every word, his mind goes blank. When he finally gives up trying to dictate and the two are simply talking together, he begins with the two following questions: "You're from the Harley Street Secretarial Agency, aren't you?" "That's in Harley Street, isn't it?"

The second question is comic, a sign of the speaker's nervousness. But the first question is natural enough. A speaker will often begin a conversation, especially with someone he does not know well, with this kind of question. The question furnishes some basis for the conversation; it shows that he knows at least something about the person he's talking to.

The distinction between *few* and *a few* (or *little* and *a little*) is not the ordinary distinction signalled by the article, and it gives students trouble. A standard ESL grammar, Krohn's *English Sentence Structure*, recognizes that this distinction needs special treatment and provides it as follows:

Few and *a few*, *little* and *a little* are slightly different.
A few and *a little* mean "a small number" and "a small quantity," respectively. *Few* and *little* mean "not . . . many" and "not . . . much."
John has a few good friends.
John has few good friends. (He *doesn't* have *many* good friends.)
You made a few mistakes.
You made few mistakes. (You *didn't* make *many* mistakes.)
I have a little time.
I have little time. (I *don't* have *much* time.)

This explanation is not wrong (though "slightly different" is a considerable understatement) and in fact is helpful to the student. But it is inadequate, since it leaves out the expectation of the speaker, which is almost reversed from one phrase to the other. In fact, the two sentences in each pair might describe the same situation, but the point of view of the speaker would be quite different.

Let's look more closely at these three pairs of sentences and the attitudes of the speakers. Anyone stating that "John has a few good friends" is making a

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positive statement; a listener might reply, "Good for him!" However, "John has few good friends" implies that he has fewer than most people, fewer than he needs, that he is lonely and friendless; a sympathetic listener might comment "Poor John!"

In the second pair of sentences, the speaker of the second sentence, "You made few mistakes," is praising the hearer. He had expected more mistakes. Perhaps the sentence is even implying that almost anyone would have made more mistakes. The speaker of the first sentence, however, is not praising. On the surface he is making a statement of fact, but he is probably intending a mild criticism. A sentence like this one is often part of an explanation to a student as to why his grade was low: "Well, you followed directions and your general idea was okay, but you made a few mistakes in wording and in sentence structure." Here, "a few" is "more than expected"; it implies something like "too many."

The third pair of sentences, as reply sentences, differ in that one is an acceptance, the other a refusal. If a student stops a teacher and asks, "Can you explain such-and-such to me?" the teacher might well reply, "Yes, I have a little time." Here the expanded meaning is "I have another class soon, but I do want to talk to you." "I have little time," on the other hand, is a dismissal of the questioner.

"I have little time for such-and-such" is a severe criticism, as "You made a few mistakes" is a mild one. "I have little time for modern art" is a dismissal of all art since the 19th century; "I have little time for student excuses" implies a belief on the speaker's part that most student excuses are lies; "I have little time for her problems" implies a belief that most of the "problems" are imaginary.

There are a number of situations in which either one or the other expression might be used, depending on the speaker's expectations. One such situation is as follows: A student comes into a room in which the International Club is going to meet soon (in five minutes, perhaps) and sees seven or eight people there. If he expects around eighteen people, he may say, "There are a few people here." If, on the other hand, he expects fifty or sixty people, he may say disappointedly, "There are few people here." (In fact, it seems more natural to say, "There are very few people here." "Very few" seems in practice equal to "few," but more commonly used.)

Any expression that depends on the speaker's expectations cannot be taught simply by teaching the structure of the expression, or even by teaching both the structure and the super-segmentals. It can be taught by role-playing, and it deserves the time that role-playing involves. However, the teacher must be cautious in setting up the role-playing situation so that the key factor of expectation is thoroughly understood. It may even be necessary (contrary though it is to usual ESL theory and practice) to use a kind of bad example. In other words, the teacher may need to point out explicitly how the dialogue may break down if one of the participants uses the inappropriate expression or misunderstands the appropriate one. For example, when the teacher says, "You made a few mistakes," the student needs to know that the reply, "Oh, good! (Not many mistakes this time. I'm getting better," is not appropriate. Or, in the original case, when the student puts his head into the office and asks, "Isn't So-and-so here?" the teacher needs to give the reaction that would normally be politely suppressed: "What do you mean, isn't So-and-so here? Who do you think you are? Do you think that the teacher has to be there at all times for *your* convenience?" More subtly, the teacher may go over to the filing cabinet, search in it carefully, and then reply, "No, sorry, she's not here."

Such role-playing will demonstrate to the student the expectations that are involved in using the negative question or *a few/few*. In the future, when the student is taking part in a dialog and one of these expressions is used, both parties will understand the other's meaning, instead of misunderstanding without even becoming aware that they do misunderstand. In other words, discommunication will have become communication. □

GAMES ESL PEOPLE PLAY

by Jerry Steinberg
St. Jean, Quebec

I don't wait for the closing minutes of the period or day to play a game with my students. You can "catch" me playing games with my students at *any time* of the day—yes, even at the very start of the day's lessons. And I never feel that I'm "slacking off" when we play.

Games have many "raisons d'être", seven of which I'll outline for you. (Memorize them and you can defend yourself if you ever have to justify playing games with your students.)

I use games to *reinforce* newly-acquired material. For example: You've just taught the cardinal numbers and you want to give your students an opportunity to use them in a meaningful context. So, you play "Ninety-eight", a card game which requires the players to orally add card values to a maximum of 98.

A second justification for games is *review*. Suppose it's been a while since you taught the simple past of irregular verbs and you want to check and refresh your students' memories. One of my favorites is "Tic-Tac-Toe" (or "Xs and Os"). The class is divided into two teams, namely; Team X and Team O.

One member of Team X chooses a position on the grid and must use the verb occupying that position in a sentence in the simple past. If the sentence is correct, Team X gains that position. If wrong, the turn is lost and a member of Team O can try for any vacant position which will help his team. The first team to occupy three positions in a row (vertically, horizontally or diagonally) wins the match. New verbs replace used ones for each successive match.

If your class has been working hard for a long time in their seats, a game would be an enjoyable and profitable form of *relaxation*. A popular game with my students is "Rhyme Mime". One player thinks of two rhyming words (such as "ship" and "trip" or "hot" and "pot") and acts them out in mime. The student who guesses one word wins two points, the second word is worth one point, and if both words are guessed by the same person, he/she wins 5 points.

If there is a task ahead, for which neither you nor your students can muster much enthusiasm, a game can be offered as a future *reward* to encourage co-operation. Or, if your class has performed exceptionally well during a certain activity, such as an oral drill or independent reading, a game provides an immediate *reward* for good behaviour. One of our most preferred games is "Password". The students are paired off and one partner of each team is shown the "Password" (example: "cup") and, in turn, says one word which will, he hopes, prompt his partner to guess the "Password". Words such as "coffee", or "glass", or "handle" or "saucer" are good clues. I allow my students to refer to their dictionaries or thesauruses when it isn't their turn to speak, but I advise them to avoid choosing words which their partners won't understand.

To make the game more challenging, I stipulate that clues cannot contain or be contained by the "Password", so that if the "Password" is "blackboard", "black" and "board" cannot be given as clues to elicit the "Password". I also insist that clues cannot be proper nouns. This prevents students from insulting each other, should the "Password" be a word such as "fat", or "ugly" or "stupid".

Games tend to *reduce inhibition*, especially if the competitive element is diminished or eliminated. The shy or linguistically weak student will feel more at ease and will participate freely if the object is just to have fun, and not to score points and win or lose. Although competition often adds excitement and increases participation, it can just as often increase the pressure to perform well and exclude the timid student or the one who is less sure of his facility with the language.

Should a lull occur in the interest exhibited toward the lesson being taught, a short game would *raise attentiveness* so that the lesson could be resumed for the benefit of all.

If you've been having trouble with rowdy students, a game can *restrain rebellion*. Class clowns don't have to "clown around" to get attention, and who would risk irritating the teacher, thereby bringing a premature end to a fun activity.

Each and every game in my collection of over 150 games utilizes a linguistic structure and develops at least one linguistic skill (if not all four). Therefore, none of them can be labelled a waste of time.

So whether a game is used as a warm-up or a cool-down activity, it can be beneficial to language students, both linguistically and behaviourally. And I can vouch for the fact that teachers enjoy games, too.

Who says learning (and teaching) can't be enjoyable! □

INSIGHTS FROM OPTOMETRY: A SIDE-VIEW OF TESTING

by Virginia French Allen

For the test of peripheral vision, the subject peers into a darkened screen on which a point of light sporadically appears. The light, flashed by the technician, advances from one direction or another toward the center of the screen. The subject presses a button whenever the point of light is perceived.

The task is tedious. Even an adult with professional interest in testing loses interest; attention often flags. The performance has little apparent relevance to everyday *seeing*. It is artificial, as paper-and-pencil tests are artificial when used as measures of communication skills. So muses the subject, a language teacher, while dutifully pressing the beeper at each appearance of the lighted dot.

Afterwards, assured of the hoped-for 20/20 score, the Subject quizzes the Technician about the test procedure:

S: I've done some work with *language* testing, so I'm wondering how you feel about this kind of *vision* test. It's so mechanical, so different from real seeing. How can you get a valid picture when you ask someone to sit there pressing a button every time a light appears? That's an unfamiliar technique.

T: Right. So I don't even keep score during the first few minutes of the test. I didn't record your responses till I could see you were feeling comfortable with the procedure. I paid attention to your reactions, though.

S: What do you mean?

T: People have different reaction times. Some can do the task faster than others. Some get tired sooner, too. I had to find out how you reacted, so I could evaluate your responses when I finally began to record them.

S: So you would not give this sort of test to several people at the same time?

T: It wouldn't mean anything. You have to notice so many things about the person while the test is going on.

S: You just mentioned the fatigue factor. When you were trained, did they tell you how long a testing period could be, without reaching the point of diminishing returns?

T: Like I said, every person is different. You have to notice how the person is responding. There's no one length of time that's right for testing everyone. Sometimes, when they're really elderly, I tell the person to come back for another short session after I've been testing for just five minutes. Once I had a man who had played poker till 4 a.m. that morning. I could tell he was falling asleep in front of the screen. I had him come back another day. You have to

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watch what is happening as the test goes along.

S: Don't you find that *attention* makes a difference? I'm sure I missed some dots because my mind was on something else when you bashed them on the screen.

T: That didn't really matter. You see, the *pattern* is what's important. I look for the pattern of performance, not the occasional missed beep here and there. That's where the art comes in. The test may look mechanical; that's the word you used. But interpreting what happens, what someone is doing with it—that's what counts. And that takes *art*. [How many applications to language testing does this episode suggest?] □

SUGGESTIONS FOR E.S.L. SUPERVISORS

by Emilio G. Cortez
Yeadon, Pa.

The focal point of this article centers upon appropriate behaviors and/or suggestions that E.S.L. supervisors can implement to initiate and to maintain a good rapport with the teachers they supervise.

One situation that sometimes hinders supervisor-teacher rapport occurs when the teachers' expectations of the supervisor's role are incongruent with the supervisor's actual responsibilities. Thus, it is a sound practice to disseminate an overview of one's supervisory role and rationale as soon as possible in order to avoid any misconceptions.

A timely demonstration lesson can help nurture supervisor-teacher rapport. If a supervisor makes it a general practice to conduct a demonstration lesson early in the supervisor-teacher relationship, many positive aspects can result. From the onset:

1) The teacher can observe the effectiveness of the supervisor's teaching strategies. 2) Empathy is facilitated due to a reversal of roles. 3) The supervisor communicates a genuine willingness to get involved. 4) The supervisor obtains first-hand information about the teacher's students.

Some teachers find criticism difficult to accept after a supervisor has observed them teach a lesson. For this reason, it is suggested that supervisors refrain from criticism until teachers have commented on their own teaching. When teachers are given the opportunity to evaluate their own teaching, they will often disclose the underlying tenets of their rationales. Such information can be helpful to supervisors in determining teachers' strengths and weaknesses and in planning subsequent conferences.

A supervisor's frequent self-evaluation and introspection can help to identify and to remedy counterproductive patterns of interpersonal behavior. More specifically, some supervisors would benefit by carefully considering the following questions: 1) Are there recurring patterns of incidents that tend to undermine supervisor-teacher rapport? If so, what are the patterns? 2) How can such incidents be avoided in the future?

In a report on a study, "Supervisory Behavior and Interpersonal Relations," the findings indicated that generally positive evaluations by teachers resulted: 1) When a teacher perceives his supervisor's behavior as consisting of a heavy emphasis on both telling, suggesting, and criticizing, and on reflecting, asking for information and opinions, etc. or 2) when a teacher perceives his supervisor as putting little emphasis on the telling dimension and much on the asking reflecting dimension. A supervisor's emphasis on asking questions and seeking information from a teacher transmits openness, humility, and confidence—qualities which when sincerely communicated contribute to establishing rapport.

An important part of a supervisor's effectiveness necessitates a sensitive and responsive demeanor to the psychological dispositions of teachers. In keeping with this notion, Transactional Analysis constitutes a provocative approach for comprehending human interaction. A thorough understanding of Transactional Analysis can provide many insights into the transient nature of ego-states and can ultimately improve a supervisor's ability to establish and to maintain a harmonious rapport with teachers.

Proponents of Transactional Analysis assume that there are three ego-states (Parent, Adult, Child) within any individual. Furthermore, these three ego-states are not considered theoretical constructs but psychological realities. Thomas A. Harris discusses the analysis of a "transaction" in his book *I'm OK, You're OK.*

> The transaction consists of a stimulus [a statement or gesture] by one person and a response by another. This response in turn becomes a new stimulus for the other person to respond to. The purpose of the analysis is to discover which part of each person—Parent, Adult, or Child—is originating each stimulus or response.

A compilation of suggestions for promoting rapport with teachers will now be presented. 1) Clarify teachers' misconceptions concerning the scope and specifics of your supervisory duties. 2) Show a sincere willingness to accept criticism. 3) Encourage teachers to be creative and to experiment with different teaching approaches; i.e., communicate an openness to change. 4) Make it a general practice to try to schedule your first demonstration lessons as soon as possible. 5) Refrain from criticism until teachers have had the opportunity to evaluate their own teaching. 6) Strive to identify and to avoid incidents that tend to undermine communication. 7) Listen intently to teachers and discuss issues in a calm fashion. 8) Cultivate patience and make it a habit to praise teachers whenever they merit it. 9) Attempt to equally exhibit the following behaviors: telling, suggesting, reflecting, and asking questions. 10) Attempt to schedule conferences at the teacher's convenience. 11) Attempt to work up to important matters gradually. 12) Don't overwhelm teachers by attempting to accomplish too much in a single conference. 13) Avoid getting involved in school gossip. 14) Don't be reluctant to admit that you've made an error in judgment. 15) Maintain assertiveness without showing hostility or excessive aggressiveness. 16) In making a point, be tactful yet clear. 17) Intellectually, be broad without spreading yourself too thin and deep without seeming too "bookish" or "pedagogical." 18) Avoid an air of superiority. 19) Be helpful but not solicitous.

By implementing the suggestions here described, E.S.L. supervisors can take positive steps towards establishing effective supervisor-teacher relations. A harmonious professional rapport between supervisors and teachers can facilitate the realization of educational goals. □

USING FILMS AS A PRE-WRITING ACTIVITY

by Sandy McKay
San Francisco State University

Composing involves the dual task of deciding what to say and how to say it. Perhaps due to the concern of ESL classes with accuracy, the emphasis in teaching composition has often been on how to say it. Many writing texts provide ESL students with a topic, or else assume they already have something to say and thus, immediately proceed to the how of a composition. While this aspect of the writing process certainly must be dealt with, if equal attention is not given to the question of what to say, we as composition teachers will likely fail to promote effective writing.

Shaughnessy (1978: 81-82) contends that implicit in the art of writing is the following sequence: first, getting the thought; second, getting the thought down; and third, readying the written statement for other eyes. She maintains that although students have difficulty with each of these steps, the most difficult is getting the thought. Many strategies have been suggested to aid students in this initial task, dating from Aristotle's classical *topoi* to more recent theories like the Pike, Becker and Young's particle, wave and field approach. However, one effective method for invention that has not received the attention it should is the use of short unnarrated films.

Films have several advantages in helping students find something to say. First, they provide students with a concrete context in which to explore their own feelings and experiences. According to Langer (1953:412) film "is 'like' a dream in the mode of its presentation: it creates a virtual present, an order of direct apparition. . . . The most noteworthy formal characteristic of dream is that the dreamer is always at the center of it." Clearly, it is the immediacy of the experience, the "virtual present," that makes film a valuable tool for generating writing ideas.

Secondly, films share with literature a potential for not only drawing forth personal experiences, but also ordering those experiences. According to Rosenblatt (1978: 11), a literary text serves two functions: "First, a text is a stimulus, activating elements of the reader's past experience. . . . Second, the text serves as a blueprint, a guide for the selecting, rejecting and ordering of what is being called forth." Certainly, films offer these same benefits, with one additional advantage. While the linguistic difficulty of a literary selection may impede a nonnative speaker's own aesthetic experience, unnarrated films avoid this problem. Films, of course, like literature, will elicit very different reactions, some perhaps due to cultural differences. Yet, in this way, they provide a context in which to explore cultural differences. The viewing of a film, like the reading of a literary text, involves an interplay between the culture of the text and the culture of the viewer. Rosenblatt's (1978: 56) description of a reader is certainly applicable to the viewer of a film: "The reader draws on his own internalized culture in order to elicit from the text this world which may differ from his own in many respects. . . . The literary transaction may thus embody, and probably to some degree always embodies, an interplay between at least two sets of values."

Films, then, in so far as they activate and order personal experience, can be of benefit in getting a writer started. The challenge of a composition class, however, is to bridge the gap between getting the thought and discovering a creative and effective way to express this thought. It is at this point in the writing process that students need the most help. As Selfe and Rodi (1980: 169) put it,

> As teachers of composition and rhetoric, most of us have come to realize the necessity and benefits of involving students in the initial process of invention—that process which actively engages students both in examining their experiences for that which they find interesting and valuable, and in determining or discovering the most effective way to write about these experiences for the composing task at hand. And yet many of us have also come to recognize the reluctance and sometimes the inability of students to undertake autonomously this dual task.

While the viewing of a film can aid students with the first task, that of examining their experiences, they are still faced with the second task of discovering the most effective way to write about them. What the students need are some heuristic devices to help them in ordering their thoughts for the composition. The following is an example of two such heuristic devices designed for use with a specific film.

The film is *Le Haricot* (*The String Bean*), a short unnarrated film (seventeen minutes) by the French photographer, Edmond Sechan. The film is a portrait of an old woman who carefully guards a potted bean plant from birth to death. She plants the seed in her apartment, watches it develop, replants it in a nearby park, and finally witnesses it being discarded by the park gardener. However, before it is thrown away, she is able to salvage some seeds, take them home, and begin anew the task of nurturing a string bean. The film is thus not only a vignette of an old woman, but a commentary on man's relationship with his environment.

In order to explore the various themes of the film, the following heuristic devices could be used. The first chart requires students to focus on the actions of the old woman, and to then use these actions to make inferences about her character.

Directions: While you watch the film write down all the actions of the old woman. After viewing the film, indicate what you believe each action demonstrates about her personality. The first one is done for you.

ACTION	INFERENCE
1. The old woman finishes her sewing for the day, puts the thread and scissors in the drawer, and closes the sewing machine.	1. The fact that she carefully returns each item to a designated spot suggests that she is neat and orderly.
2. She takes out the cooking pot, fills it with water, and puts in some bean seeds.	

After completing this sheet, an important follow-up would be for the students to share their findings. Undoubtedly each student will note different actions in the film, and draw quite varied conclusions about these actions. The fact that some students may attribute the putting away of the sewing items to neatness, while others see it as complusiveness will illustrate the uniqueness of their inferences. By completing the chart, the students will have made some progress toward what Shaughnessy terms "getting the thought down." In the essay itself then they might explore the character of the old woman. The reaction sheet will no doubt be valuable in forming generalizations about the old woman's personality and substantiating them with relevant examples. An alternate assignment might entail having the students observe the actions of a stranger, and draw inferences about these actions as the basis for a character sketch.

A second reaction sheet that could be used with the same film draws on the theme of man's relationship with his environment. Selfe and Rodi (1980: 170) describe a heuristic device to help students arrive at a fuller definition of self. This is done by asking students to view themselves from three different perspectives as they evolve over time. Each frame in their structure can be expanded on with additional questions. For example, an exploration of self in the past might involve questions such as, "What did I like/dislike about myself five years ago?"

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SELF-DEFINITION

PAST	What was I like at 5 years of age?
PRESENT	What kind of person am I today?
FUTURE	What kind of person will I be in 5 years?

SOCIAL-DEFINITION

PAST	How did others see me physically as a child?
PRESENT	How do others see me physically today?
FUTURE	How might others see me in the future?

ENVIRONMENTAL DEFINITION

PAST	What "things" helped me reach goals 10 years ago?
PRESENT	What "things" do I utilize to reach my present goals?
FUTURE	What "things" might I use to reach my future goals?

Le Haricot is a film which explores an individual largely from the environment perspective. The following device is designed to help students define the old woman in terms of her relationship with the plant as it develops over time.

Directions: List the various things that the old woman does with the plant. Then indicate how you think she felt about the plant at each stage. In order to describe how she felt, it will be particularly useful to carefully observe her facial expressions.

ACTIONS

1. The old woman boils the seeds in order to plant them.
2. She goes to the market to find some soil to plant the seed.

FEELINGS

How do you think the woman felt about the plant . . .
when she first planted it?
when the rain watered the plant?
when she planted it in the garden outside?
when the gardener picked the plant?
when she headed home with the dead plant?
when she boiled the seeds from the dead plant?
when she planted the new seeds?
when the new plant began to grow?

Once students compare their ideas about the old woman's feelings toward the plant, they could then proceed to write an essay in which they discuss the old woman's relationship with the plant. In an alternate assignment they might examine their own relationship with something in the environment (an object or place), and its development over time. The following is a student essay written in response to such an assignment.

The Porcelain Bell

I have a brown porcelain bell on a shelf in my house. It is very important to me because it helped me a lot several years ago. I got it at a small temple in Japan when I was very unhappy. I visited the temple to beg Buddha to give me a baby because I had just lost my first baby before, and also I was told by a doctor that there was no hope for me to have a baby again.

I met a Buddhist priest who taught me to wait for a baby spirit's coming from heaven. He said, "Buddha might send you a baby spirit someday when you are ready, but you have to clean your mind and not to forget to thank him for what he does every day for you. This bell will remind you to pray and to thank Buddha, and Buddha will hear your bell and be reminded to think about you too. But remember that the more you clean your mind, the more beautiful sound you make with this bell." Then he gave me the small bell. After I came home, I kept ringing the bell because I wanted to have a baby so much. I rang the bell twice a day and prayed, and eight months later, I began to recognize a different sound. I was crazy about making and creating a beautiful sound and I almost forgot why I was ringing the bell. And soon I noticed a baby spirit inside of me. Now I have two children, one husband and the bell.

As this essay illustrates, films can be valuable in getting the students started to write. Clearly, viewing the film is not sufficient. What is essential is that the teacher provide some type of heuristic device to help students order their reactions to the film. Once the students have in Shaughnessy's terms "gotten the thought" and begun to "get the thought down," they can proceed to the final step, the usual focus of composition classes, "readying the statement for other eyes." Each step is equally important and warrants attention in the ESL composition class. Clearly, film is one way we as composition teachers can help students in the most difficult part of the composing process, finding something to say.

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IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
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TALKING IT UP

by Howard Sage
State University of New York at Old Westbury

"In the youth of the world," says Shelley in his *A Defense of Poetry*, "men dance and sing and imitate natural objects, observing in these actions, as in all others, a certain rhythm and order." True enough. Still later, however, they spoke. And when, seated on raised mounds of earth in those first classrooms, they began to speak, an early ESOL problem arose. As teachers of English learners, we still face it. Simply stated, how can we within the limits of the classroom, be it cave or college, introduce students to English as used outside the classroom by persons the student never meets in the classroom, in situations the student rarely encounters, in professions and at jobs of which the student may not know?

Put another way, the question is how to expand the ESL program to include more fully the extra-curricular world the student will face when he or she leaves the ESOL classroom.

While the field has recently put forth classroom activities such as realistic dialogues, role playing, and other devices aimed at strengthening the student's ability to manage daily tasks (making phone calls, asking directions, buying theater tickets, etc.), as a cure if not the elixir itself, no approach, including this emphasis on communicative competence, has yet solved the problem.

At the State University of New York's Old Westbury campus on Long Island the problem is intensified. The weekly academic schedule consists of classes held twice a week with Wednesdays reserved for faculty meetings, a day free of classes for the majority of students. In addition, since most students are able to arrange a two-day class schedule, they are in class nearly all of those days. After finishing class, the commuter students, the majority, leave the campus; the resident foreign students retreat to the dormitory, to their own ethnic groups, and to the security of their own languages.

Wednesdays, then, have become a weekly detour on the highway of second language learning, the main direction held only by the two-hour, twice-a-week classes.

To help the student keep to the main language road I sought to develop a weekly supplementary language program to be held on Wednesday mornings. From the start the goals were clear. The program must first offer students an opportunity to converse with native speakers other than their classroom instructors in informal, colloquial English, English borne of an everyday American life experience they, isolated on a suburban campus or limited to a mono-ethnic environment, do not have access to and/or do not use. Second, the format must have a cultural component, one that will expose them to persons in and aspects of the society they had not previously known, encountered, or imagined.

So, in the Fall of 1980, I announced in all ESL classes and advertised in several campus publications, a series of "English Conversation Hours." I planned a two-hour session each Wednesday from 10:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon. The format consisted of a guest speaker addressing the students for 45 minutes to an hour, followed by a one-hour discussion with the speaker and among the group on the topic or on related matters.

Several American students, native speakers of English, are invited to attend and take part in the discussion. Their presence supplies additional voices and attitudes, and, at the same time, the American students function as peers, helping to put the foreign students more at ease. This they accomplish first by stationing themselves throughout the room, noticing when a student did not understand a word or concept and alerting the guest speaker; second, adding another perspective to the discussion, thus demonstrating to the non-native speaker of English how at least one American thinks; and, finally, by encouraging, joking, and even laughing with the non-native speakers, giving them a feeling of confidence and belonging.

As coordinator of the program, I have the responsibility for a variety of tasks. In addition to the planning stages, in which I choose and secure the speakers to visit the group and arrange for the room, equipment, and refreshments, I also handle some small but crucial tasks during the sessions themselves. I introduce the speakers, stimulate the discussion when necessary, remind the guests, who are not usually ESOL professionals, of the need to explain or repeat a word or phrase, and generally act as troubleshooter and welder of group unity.

During the Fall semester, 1980, speakers from off-campus included a journalist who had served as a correspondent in Iran, who spoke of the difficulty of being the only woman reporter among an all male news crew; a freelance editor and jazz chant leader, who led the class in jazz chanting and spoke of her experiences in the publishing world; and a New York State Assemblyman, who explained the behind-the-scenes working of the American political system.

From on campus came a marine biologist; a psychologist specializing in the family; and the Director of the college art gallery. These speakers discussed topics related to their respective fields.

Other programs included films on the American labor union movement, a lecture on Black poetry, and a session of singing American folk songs.

The students' response has been overwhelmingly favorable. They have listened intently. Although shy at first, they have expressed their opinions. They have become more verbal. Stimulated by the encouragement of the speaker, always amiable and sensitive to their language difficulties, they have offered parallel situations in their own countries to those mentioned by the speakers and have even probed the speakers' assertions. Moreover, they have enjoyed themselves. They have relaxed. They themselves are feeling a sense of their growing knowledge of American culture, customs, and institutions and of their increased capacity in English.

Commuter students who had not been scheduled to be on campus on Wednesdays began to participate. In addition, not only have the students asked some of the speakers to return, but the volunteer speakers themselves have mentioned how much they enjoyed the time and have expressed the desire to return.

One benefit of the program is the varied voices students have the opportunity to hear and to process. Intonations from many regions, professions, and ethnic backgrounds reach their ears. They said that by listening to the varied cadences of the speakers their awareness of American speech rhythms had been enlarged. Embedded within these cadences are more than sounds, of course; the nuances, the thought patterns of Americans penetrate the students' consciousness.

An additional practical benefit is the contact the students make with content course professors whose subjects they may later elect. In this way they are informally introduced to the professors' areas of interest and to the professors' modes of instruction. They are in a better position to know if one or the other interests them.

To recruit possible speakers one might profitably glance at the college catalog, the Agencies and Organizations section of the Yellow Pages, and daily and Sunday newspapers from which names of likely and lively guests might be taken.

The "English Conversation Hours"

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program, as it is called, requires only a classroom (a lounge or non-classroom atmosphere is preferable), volunteers selected from areas of American life, American students if available or others, and a coordinator. It requires little if any administrative input. In an ESOL program of several faculty members the duties of program organization can rotate from person to person each semester.

Easy to organize, inexpensive to operate, fun to lead, the "English Conversation Hours" here at the State University of New York at Old Westbury have helped keep the ESOL students on the main route of language learning and simultaneously converted an apparent deficit — empty Wednesdays — into a benefit. □

IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
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Richard Yorkey needs no introduction to many TESOL members who look for practical classroom ideas. Thus, it is with pleasure that we print a lesson idea which he shared with teachers at the TEAL (Teachers of English as an Additional Language) Conference in Vancouver, British Columbia in March, 1981. Other Yorkey lessons will follow in the next *TESOL Newsletter* under "It Works."

SHUFFLED COMICS

by Richard Yorkey
St. Michael's College

Many teachers have used strip stories[1] to practice communication among students by means of a problem-solving approach that requires what Rivers calls "autonomous interaction."[2] An extension of this technique is comic strip stories, or what I call Shuffled Comics. The activity is a kind of visual version of a strip story, but rather than memorize sentences in order to reconstruct a story, students must describe a scene and report the dialog.

Not all comics are equally useful for this activity. So far I have found that the comic strip of *Blondie* is the most consistently useful, primarily because it deals with everyday domestic situations that relate to English-speaking customs and culture. (This comic strip is also fun for some students because it is already familiar to them as Dagbert in French or Lorenzo and Pepita in Spanish.) Occasionally *The Wizard of Id*, *B.C.*, or *Peanuts* can be used, but each of them has its own kind of humor and cultural references that may need to be explained.

The preparation for Shuffled Comics is easy. Simply cut out each panel of the comic strip and paste it on a 3x5-inch card. I have found that fewer than six or seven panels do not present enough challenge to make the interaction either interesting or helpful. And more than a dozen panels make the activity unwieldly and too much of a clerical task.

The following twelve (randomly arranged) panels from *Blondie* are an effective example of the technique. After cutting and pasting, I shuffle the cards and distribute one to each student. (If you are fortunate to have fewer than twelve, some students can have two cards. If you have many more than twelve, perhaps two groups can practice communication with Shuffled Comics simultaneously.)

Each student is asked to tell what the characters are doing and saying. A lot of present continuous tense is usually elicited (for example, *Dagwood and Blondie are standing outside their house*), occasionally other tenses (*Dagwood has just closed the door*), and frequent, natural use of the present tense with reported speech (*Blondie asks Dagwood if he has his wallet*, or *Dagwood tells her that he has it in his pocket.*)

This particular comic strip happens to have many examples of Yes-No questions: *Do you have your wallet? Did you remember. . . ? Are you sure you didn't forget anything?* Students in my class were fascinated by the different ways in which the affirmative reply can be spoken: *Yes, Sure did, Positive, Of course*—or even what is especially common in Vermont, *Yep.*

Because students cannot see each other's part of the comic strip, they must rely solely on their accuracy of verbal communication and comprehension in order to reassemble the pictures into their original order. After my students discussed possible sequences and their reasons, and then finally agreed on an appropriate order, they gathered around the desk and physically placed each picture in its proper place. As a conclusion, several couples read the parts of Dagwood and Blondie as a kind of dialog. (With an especially good class, a narrator can be assigned to describe each scene before the dialog is spoken.) The dialog reviewed and reinforced the question patterns. Students also, incidentally, enjoyed referring to each other as *honey* or *dear*! One student also experimented with different intonations to indicate the increasing irritation of Dagwood—and then a humiliated tone when he discovers he has forgotten the tickets.

At the end of this activity, two other points came up. One girl asked about the appropriateness of the prepositional phrase at the end of the punch line (*That's what I left the ticket on top of*). Some previous teacher had probably taught her never to end a sentence with a preposition, and her question led to a valuable discussion about grammar rules, styles, and the distinction between speaking and writing. I myself drew attention to one aspect of the humor which non-native-speakers of English could not be expected to appreciate. The idiom, *everything but the kitchen sink*, was unfamiliar to everyone in class, but they were amused to learn the expression and volunteered various translations in their language. Students were also pleasantly surprised to discover that the idiom is included in the *Longman Dic-*

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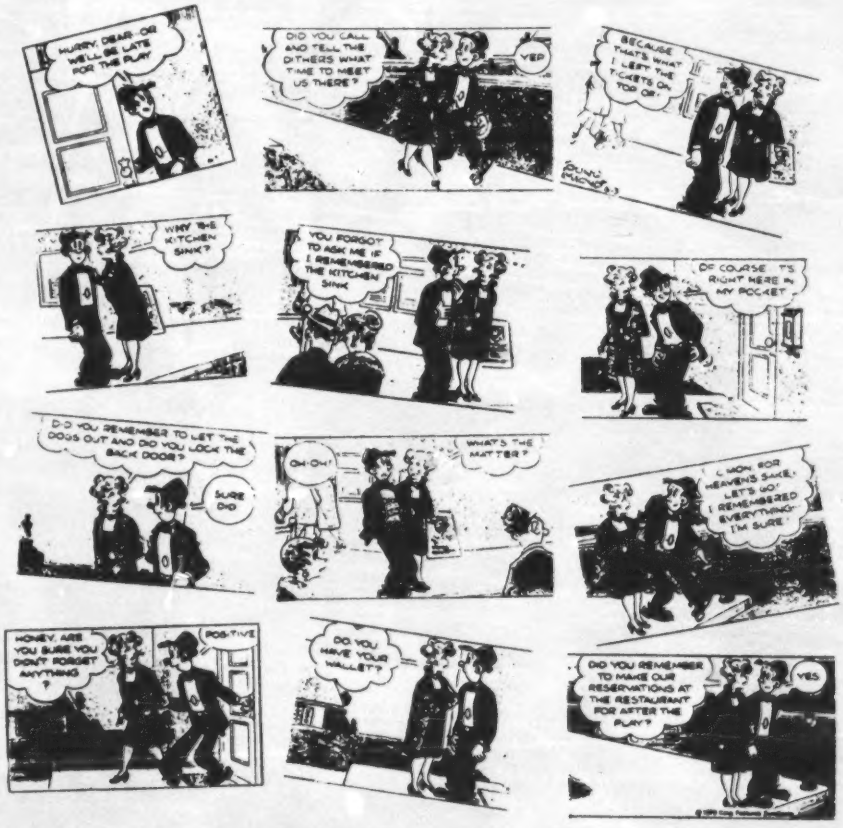
HURRY, DEAR—OR WE'LL BE LATE FOR THE PLAY
DID YOU CALL AND TELL THE DITHERS WHAT TIME TO MEET US THERE?
YEP
BECAUSE THAT'S WHAT I LEFT THE TICKETS ON, TOP OF!
WHY THE KITCHEN SINK?
YOU FORGOT TO ASK ME IF I REMEMBERED THE KITCHEN SINK
OF COURSE IT'S RIGHT HERE IN MY POCKET
DO YOU REMEMBER TO LET THE DOGS OUT AND DO YOU LOCK THE BACK DOOR?
SURE DID
OH-OH!
WHAT'S THE MATTER?
C'MON, FOR HEAVEN'S SAKE! LET'S GO! I REMEMBERED EVERYTHING! I'M SURE!
HONEY, ARE YOU SURE YOU DIDN'T FORGET ANYTHING?
POSITIVE
DO YOU HAVE YOUR WALLET?
DID YOU REMEMBER TO MAKE OUR RESERVATIONS AT THE RESTAURANT FOR AFTER THE PLAY?
YES

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tionary of Contemporary English. (It is not listed in *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* or in any of the standard American desk dictionaries.)

This kind of activity is quick and easy to prepare and not too time-consuming in class. Most of all, it is a pleasant, purposeful way to practice recognition of visual and grammatical sequence signals and to reinforce oral communication and aural comprehension. □

NOTES

[1] Robert E. Gibson, "The Strip Story: A Catalyst for Communication," *TESOL Quarterly*, IX.2 (June 1975), 149-154.

[2] Wilga M. Rivers and Mary S. Temperley, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1978), 47-61.

AN APPROACH TO TEACHING E.S.L. READING TO LITERATE ADULTS

by Joanne Kalnitz
and Kathy Reyen Judd
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We have found that despite the fact that our students may be fluent readers in their native languages, they often cannot transfer these skills to reading in English. They are focused on the word rather than on the entire text, are tied to their dictionaries, read slowly and word by word, and have unreasonable expectations about how much they should be able to understand. We have to help our students learn how to relax with reading. We have to teach them how to guess meanings by using signal words and context clues. Our students need to be aware of the rhetorical patterns of English so that they can identify main ideas, distinguish generalizations from specifics, and read critically. We have to be aware of the underlying cultural assumptions in readings we assign and we need to promote cultural awareness in the classroom. Most importantly, our students need to be able to determine their purpose for reading and to be able to choose appropriate strategies to achieve their goals.

By asking our students, we learned that they need to read a variety of different things in English: textbooks, newspapers, business reports and letters, menus, signs, etc. As we examined the skills of successful reading, we found that there is a lot of overlap between the skills needed to read the various materials that our students confront. For example, students may skim a newspaper as well as the phone book. Context clues can be used to determine the meaning of an unfamiliar word in a textbook as well as in a novel. This paper will explain approaches to teaching reading skills which we believe can help our students to improve.

We begin with some assumptions about reading based on Kenneth Goodman and other readings. Goodman says that reading is a "psycholinguistic guessing game" (1972), involving the reader actively in the process of receiving the message that the writer has put on the page. Another way to say this is that reading consists of an interaction between the knowledge the reader has and the message (information) the writer has communicated. Reading is not just putting sounds together; native speakers decode directly from the text to the meaning without recourse to sound. The goal for second-language readers, of course, is to approximate as closely as possible the skills of native speakers. Reading is not just word recognition. For example: **saw this is one I the*— is a collection of words, but it has no meaning at all. Rearranged, "This is the one I saw," it still has very little meaning without a context. Is *one* a movie, a dog, a person, a house? Reading is ideas, and anything less than that is not really reading but word-calling. There must be interaction between the reader and the writer (via the message). The reader must be an active participant in the communicative process, bringing ideas and expectations to the text and integrating the author's ideas into what s/he knows of the world. In summary, reading is getting meaning, always in context.

Given here are skills approaches to reading, because we want students to apply what they learn in our reading classes to whatever reading they do outside of class.

How do our students approach reading in English, and how does their approach inhibit them from becoming fluent readers? Perhaps one of the misconceptions about reading is that adults who are fluent readers in their native language will automatically be able to transfer these reading skills to a second language once they have learned enough of the language to be able to read it. Our own experience reading in the languages we studied in college shows us that such is not the case. We found ourselves frustrated and unsuccessful despite the fact that we are fluent readers in English. We all have also had numerous students who were well-educated in their native countries who are, nevertheless, extremely handicapped when attempting to read in English.

Why is this the case? Our students, because they are reading in a language that is not their own, tend to focus on the word as the unit of meaning instead of looking beyond the word to the sentence, paragraph and the entire text. As a result, they find themselves immensely frustrated since they may encounter several words in a single sentence whose meaning they are unsure of. They stop at each unfamiliar word, afraid to go on for fear of missing something. They are tied to their dictionaries, relying on translation to understand word meanings. They end up spending more time looking up words than they do reading the text.

Other strategies also inhibit our students when they read in English. For one, our students tend to have unrealistic expectations of how much they should be able to understand. They feel frustrated and dissatisfied if they have less than 100% comprehension. In addition, our students generally read everything the same way, regardless of the type of text; they read newspapers, stories and textbooks in the same manner. Finally, many of our students read aloud or subvocalize which slows them down and may inhibit comprehension.

How Can We Help Students to Change Their Strategies?

First of all, we need to help our students relax with reading and to reconsider the strategies they use. We like to begin our reading classes each semester by discussing with our students how they read in English, what they think is the best way to read, and the problems they have in reading. This is usually a lively and thought-provoking discussion for our students because it gets to the heart of their frustrations with reading in a language not their own. Although this is only the first step in our campaign to help our students change their reading strategies, some of our students exhibit a visible sense of relief as they are introduced to the idea that they are not expected to understand 100% of what they read, that they don't have to look up every word, and that they can and should read faster.

Of course, we have not won over our students to our side with this initial discussion. Some may concede that our approach has validity, while others may remain unconvinced. Therefore, we like to spend the first week or two of the semester doing classroom exercises that focus on what our students know rather than what they don't know. They are only too aware of what they don't know. Our goal is to convince them that in many cases, they already possess the tools to understand what they are reading.

We can use exercises that help students realize that they don't need to understand every word in order to understand the general idea of what they are reading—and that understanding the general idea is all they can expect from themselves until they are fluent in English. One way to do this is by having the students read a passage with words missing. Students discover that they are still able to understand the meaning of the passage. Another kind of exercise that can accomplish this same purpose is a recall exercise. Students read a passage without the help of a dictionary, then close their books and either recall orally or write down everything they remember. We have done this exercise, first asking students what percent of the passage they understand, and have gotten low estimates like 40-50%. However, when asked to recall, students covered all the main ideas of the passage. They were surprised when it was pointed out to them that they had understood everything that was important, and that they had only missed some of the details. Students tend to base their percentages on the number of words they don't recognize rather than on whether or not they got the idea. These kinds of exercises help to change their concept of what is important in reading.

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TEACHING READING

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In addition, we can also present exercises that convince them that when they need to know words, they can often figure out the meanings by themselves. We can do this by presenting exercises where the contexts are so obvious that students can't fail to understand the meaning of a new word. For example: It was *hazy* outside, so I could not see clearly.

Once we have gotten our students to think differently about their approach to reading, we can begin to teach additional skills in the reading class. For the sake of convenience, we have divided these skills into two areas—language-related skills and text-related skills, though this is an artificial division, and they overlap one another.

Language Skills

After we have proven to the students that they don't have to depend on the dictionary each time they come across an unfamiliar word, we have to teach them skills that will help them to guess the general meaning of the word. Guessing cannot be exact, nor is the exact meaning necessary. This needs to be pointed out to our students. The skills we have to teach fall into three categories:

1. determining the part of speech of the unknown word
2. using context clues to guess the meaning of the word
3. using morphological clues to guess meaning.

Our students need to be aware of clues that will help them to determine the part of speech of the unknown word as this will help them to limit the range of their guessing. If the word could be any part of speech, the student has nowhere to start from in trying to guess. We have found this to be a problem with our ESL students, who need to be taught a sensitivity to the clues that are present. However, these clues are not infallible. Students must also be taught to look not only at the word itself, not only at the surrounding words, but at the entire sentence, paragraph and text for clues.

There are two types of clues that can help students determine the part of speech of an unknown word. These are grammatical markers and syntactic clues. The parts of speech identified by these clues are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

Students can be sensitized to these clues by using worksheets that focus on the clues. For example, a sample worksheet focusing on syntactic clues would contain sentences with words missing, but with the signal word present. Students would be asked to determine the part of speech of the missing word and to identify the signal they used. The exercise is good to help students use more than one signal, and to show them that no signal works 100% of the time. For example:

> In order to be eligible for financial aid at Truman College a ——— must be a citizen or permanent resident of the U.S.

Students should be able to identify *a* as a signal for a noun. However, an article can also be followed by an adjective or an adverb, so students must look beyond to see that a modal follows the blank and therefore, the missing word is a noun. The exercise can be carried one step further by asking students to supply any noun that fits the meaning of the sentence.

A similar worksheet can be devised for grammatical markers. Students can be given sentences where one word is unknown, and they should be able to use grammatical markers and any other clues present to determine the part of speech. For example:

> The school *determines* who is eligible for the work-study program, how much they will earn, and where they will work.

The students should be able to identify the *s* as a grammatical marker. The *s* by itself isn't enough, however, to signal a verb, as it is also the plural marker

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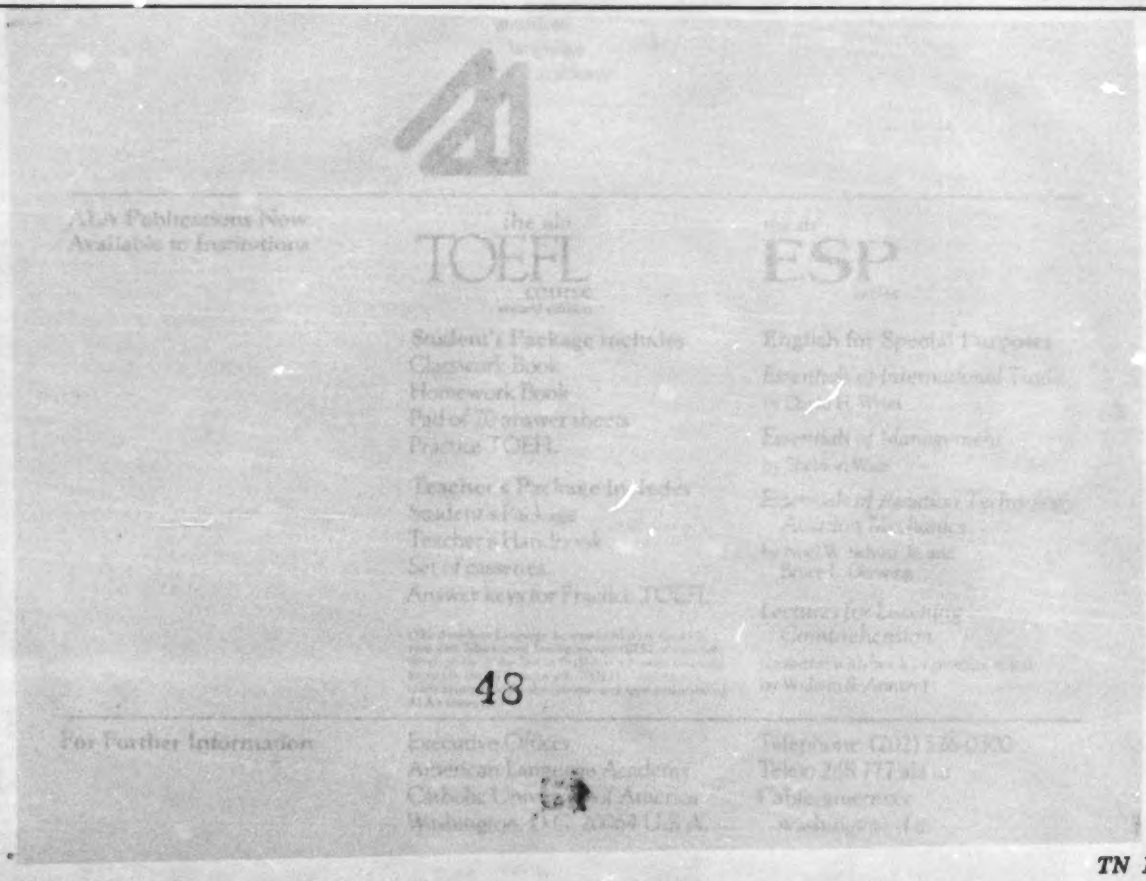

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for nouns. Students must also use syntactic clues here.

After doing exercises with isolated sentences, students can then be asked to do the same thing when reading an entire text. This kind of skill can be reinforced throughout the semester.

After students know how to determine the part of speech of the unknown word, they can also be taught to use the clues within the text, both before and after the unknown word, to narrow the meaning of the word. Again, students should not be aiming for an exact definition. After looking at a large number of reading texts which list varying kinds of context clues, we have come up with six comprehensive categories. Except for the last category, each has signal words that are clues to meaning. However, these kinds of contexts can exist without the signals. The exercises we do in the classroom are used to heighten students' awareness and to increase their sensitivity to the signal words and the contexts in which they occur.

Again, once exercises like these have been done at the sentence level, students can be asked to apply the same skills when reading an entire text.

The third element in word attack skills is the morphological analysis of words. We can teach them the most common prefixes, suffixes and stems and show them how these combine and how this can aid in understanding words within a context. In class, we can give students worksheets in which they have to match meanings once they know the meaning of a particular prefix, suffix, or stem. We can also have them create words with a particular meaning. Again, context is a must as some prefixes and suffixes have more than one meaning. For example, *-en* can mean *made of* as in *wooden, cause to be* as in *sharpen,* and *put into* as in *encircle.* Or, there may be different stems with similar meanings where only context will help. For example, *-dis* and *-un* both can mean *not* or *opposite of,* so that only context will help our students understand the difference in meaning between *dislike* and *unlike* or *discover* and *uncover.*

The other language area that interferes with our students' understanding of a text is substitutions and deletions. A breakdown in understanding a text, particularly a complex one, may occur when words are substituted or deleted and students are unaware of what the substitutions stand for or what the deleted words are. We used *A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English* by Quirk and Greenbaum (1975) to aid us in our compilation of the kinds of substitutions and deletions that occur in English. We have eliminated some of them, and recombined and reorganized others with pedagogical considerations in mind. We have listed two kinds of substitutions and three kinds of deletions that should be taught in the ESL reading class.

In the classroom, one effective way to sensitize students to substitutions is to take a text, such as an article in a student newspaper, circle all the pro forms, and have students identify what they refer to. Students can also be asked to do substitution exercises themselves, where they actually supply the pro forms.

To sensitize students to deletions, students can work with the same text, and can be asked to supply what has been deleted. They can also be asked to create deletions themselves.

Text-related Skills

One important rhetorical device of English is the use of generalizations supported by examples in expository prose. Like everything else that seems clear and straightforward to native speakers, this concept is one which ESL students need to be made aware of. They need to know how to recognize and identify generalizations and distinguish them from examples. We introduce the concepts of generalization and example and teach the vocabulary peculiar to each (*in general, on the whole, always/never* vs. *for example, for instance*). First, we ask students to identify the generalization in a paragraph, noting its location, and then we ask them to identify the examples, noting the proportion of examples to generalizations. We provide other paragraphs or longer writings for students to examine as well. A more sophisticated skill is determining whether or not the examples given ac-

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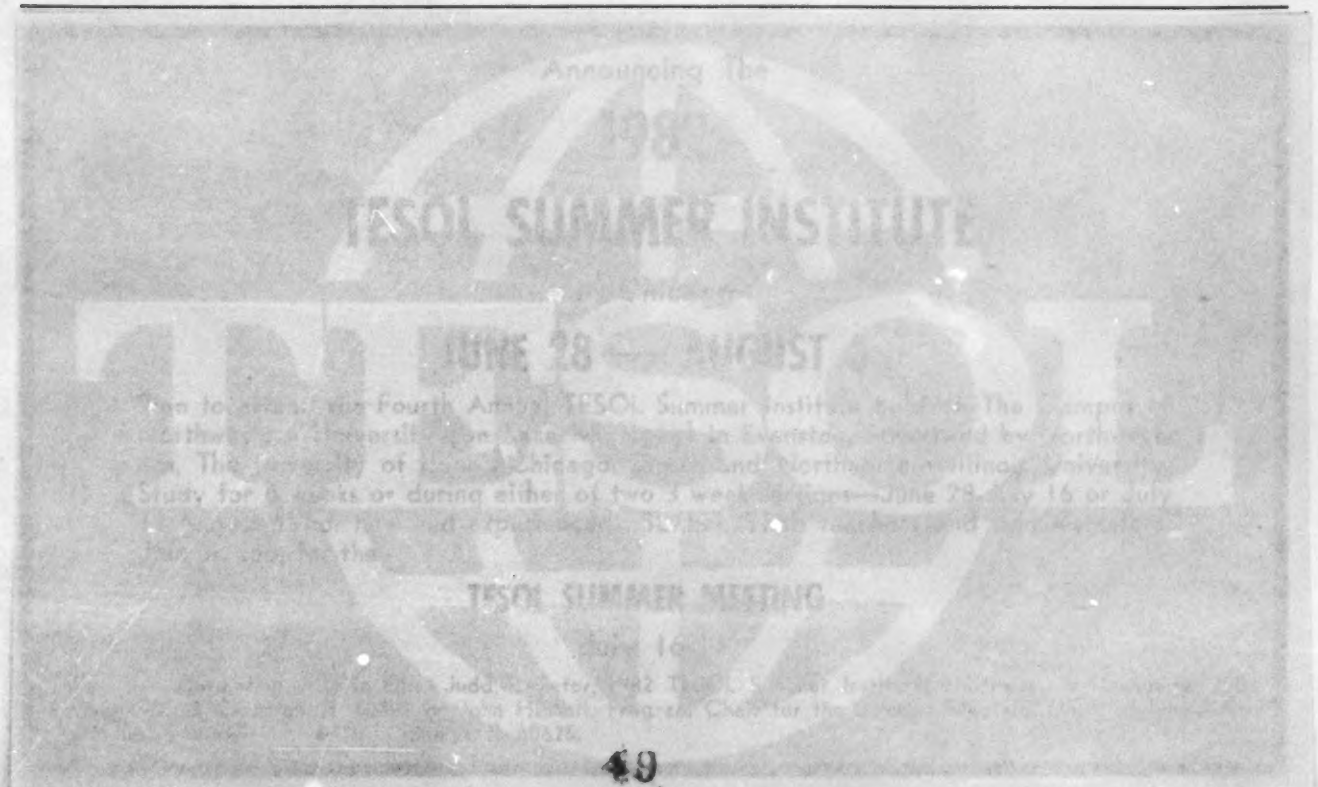

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tually support the generalization. These are skills of critical reading. After teaching generalizations and examples early in the semester, we continue identifying them throughout the semester, making sure that students know what to look for and how to spot them. Students can then make use of the concept as a means of identifying the main idea, in skimming, and in locating topic sentences. They need to be able to distinguish examples in scanning for specific information and evaluating arguments.

Not all cultures and languages organize information in the same way; as a result the rhetorical conventions of expository prose differ from one language to another. Kaplan (1966) points out the circular pattern of exposition in Oriental writing vs. linearity in English vs. the greater latitude of digression permitted in Semitic writing. Our students need to be exposed to the styles of English rhetoric so that they can make use of them in understanding what they read in English. If successful reading depends upon accurate prediction of what is to follow, as in Goodman's guessing game, then knowing the rhetorical structures and how they function will enhance fluent reading by increasing the likelihood of successful prediction.

In English, the concept of generalization and example leads to the structure of main idea and details. Many reading texts ask questions about the main idea of a reading selection, but usually there are far more questions about the details. Since the main idea is the most important one, it seems logical that more attention in reading class should be devoted to finding it, being sure all students understand it, and clarifying how the details are subordinate. The ratio of detail to main idea questions in most reading texts, however, is just the opposite of this, leading students to focus on minute details while running the risk of missing the main point.

Just as students should be exposed to the vocabulary of generalizations and examples, they should be taught the clues that English rhetoric provides for identifying the main idea, such as topic sentences, conclusions, and phrases (*most important*, etc.). Ideas that support the main idea are generally identified by *for example, in addition, moreover*, etc. Students also need to know how to identify and evaluate ideas which are in opposition to the main idea. These may be introduced by phrases like *on the other hand, some say, however*, and others. In a text, we expect to find fewer of these than supporting ideas.

If the reader understands the main idea of a piece, this is often sufficient. Many of our students believe that they must understand every small detail of what they read. ESL reading texts may give far more comprehension questions than a passage warrants. The questions often focus on minute, nonessential details. If that's what texts do, teachers may follow, even though it goes against their common sense. We do our students a disservice, however, if we insist they read everything that we give them to find all the little insignificant details. This practice only reinforces their (fallacious) idea that every word on the page is equally important and deserving of attention.

Two of the tools students need for maximally efficient reading are skimming and scanning. Skimming is quick reading for the general idea(s) of a passage. Preview skimming is used to decide whether or not to read something more thoroughly, while overview skimming is used when there is no time for a more complete reading. Scanning is looking quickly for specific information using textual clues plus graphic information. We scan to find information in a dictionary or telephone book as well as to find the answer to a specific question in prose.

If preview skimming and other reading exercises are to be meaningful, there must be time for reading of student-selected materials in class. Only by having students spend time in class reading can the instructor ensure 1) that they read the assignment and 2) that they read quickly, without their bilingual dictionaries. A reading lab with a large selection of materials at different levels and on different subjects is best suited for this; another possibility is to collect articles from newspapers and magazines (choosing those which will not be out of date next week) and to provide a file of these for students to choose from for in-class reading. The follow-up exercises can include explaining the article's idea or story's plot to another student who has not read it, answering questions the teacher has prepared, or—nothing. Sometimes just reading is enough. In real life, we often read either for pleasure or to pass the time. Students sometimes need to read things for which they are not held accountable.

An essential idea in all of this is the concept of determining purpose for reading and then suiting reading strategy to meet that purpose. Students need to be flexible both in speed of reading and in choice of strategy; as teachers, our goal is to teach students to determine their own purpose and to adopt the needed strategies (Clarke & Silberstein 1979: 50). We find that our students tend to approach everything to be read in English as if it had to be studied, but we try to teach them a variety of techniques and show them how different ones are appropriate in different situations. Among the various techniques students should be able to employ are skimming and scanning, as mentioned above, as well as study techniques such as SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review) of S.R.A. fame. ESL students need to increase their reading rate, but they must also know when to slow down for specific tasks.

In prereading activities, ESL teachers are familiar with the technique of previewing unfamiliar vocabulary or syntax likely to present problems in comprehension for students. Selekman and Kleinmann (1978) argue that we should not neglect previewing unfamiliar sociocultural concepts as part of prereading. Based on their examples, we have used previewing of cultural concepts in our classes with good results.

Selekman and Kleinmann maintain that students' active involvement in a simulation focusing on the cultural concept is the best way to ensure students' understanding of, as well as involvement in, the reading. We have found that identifying the underlying cultural assumptions is in itself a worthwhile project for the instructor, who is forced to examine American culture somewhat from the viewpoint of the non-native student. The result of this can be increased awareness on the part of the instructor that there are indeed assumptions which are not shared—or even recognized—by students from other cultures.

Conclusion

The approaches to reading instruction described here can be incorporated into reading classes for literate adults at various levels of ESL study. Beginning with the deliberate modifications of their reading strategies and continuing throughout the course to add flexibility by means of increasing the repertoire of skills students have to draw upon, we hope to produce independent second-language readers who can set their own reasonable goals and then accomplish them with success and confidence. □

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WHAT DO YOU WANT TO BE?: ROLE MODELS FOR THE ESL TEACHER

by George R. Hepworth and Karl J. Krahnke

We have been employed as teachers and administrators for the past several years in a variety of programs and we have become increasingly concerned that a major source of dissatisfaction with working conditions in the field is an absence of agreement as to what professional ESL teachers are or what they should be doing. In short, there is a lack of a role model for ESL teachers both generally and in specific employment settings. Our question is not one of qualifications or standards, but of what qualified teachers expect to do and are expected to do as part of their jobs, and what is excluded from such expectations.

Confusion on this point has seriously impaired relations between employers and teachers in a number of cases we have observed. Such confusion has diminished the effectiveness of the teaching programs and undermined morale, sometimes resulting in disillusioned teachers who have just one more reason to consider leaving the field.

In an attempt to alleviate this standoff somewhat, we have developed three operational role models. Our intent is not to promote or recommend any particular employer-employee relationship, but to allow both participants in the relationship to better articulate their conception of what it is ESL teachers are to do in a given position. We begin by defining two extreme types, both derived from elements found in actual practice, and add a third, ideal, intermediate type. There are probably other dimensions to the modelling. They would be welcome additions to a continuing discussion of this matter.

On the one hand are the teachers generally found in highly managed teaching programs with well-defined curricula and little need for originality or innovation. They are *teachers-as-technicians*. In general, technicians are viewed by management as interchangeable with any other teachers who meet the same minimal set of qualifications. More specifically, the employer may view technicians as: a) not expected to develop materials or approaches but to implement existing ones, usually following a highly structured syllabus based on some comprehensive instructional theory; b) expected to teach a large number of hours; c) expected to adhere to program management policies such as record keeping, hours on the job, preparation and submission of lesson plans, etc.; d) hireable and fireable at will, i.e., the relationship requires no long-term commitment.

From the point of view of technicians, the role of teacher involves: a) low personal involvement in shaping the instructional process; one merely does what one is required to do, b) practical concerns only, i.e., "teaching a good class". Theoretical matters are beyond the scope of the job; c) teaching towards easily quantifiable objectives—lessons taught, scores increased, performance objectives met. The relationship of these outcomes to more realistic or individual needs is not a matter of concern for teachers themselves, d) concern with students only in the classroom; e) heavy reliance on published materials and materials in general, especially comprehensive packages or those that reflect an identifiable "approach"; f) voluntary compliance with employment and program management policies.

In summary, technicians are materials-oriented teachers who are interested in the practical, not the theoretical, are systematic, organized, and interested in minimizing the individual differences between students and between teachers. Technicians believe that program management is the responsibility of the management and that teachers' concerns are peripheral or subordinate.

At the other extreme are the *teachers-as-artists*. Teachers exhibiting similarities to this type are probably far more numerous than those approximating the technician. Artists view themselves as working in a classroom-studio where their creativity and individuality are highly-valued. They believe that: a) teaching is an individual act which is heavily dependent on personality and experience. Many believe that "teachers are born, not made", and while training can be useful, personal classroom experience is the key to development of good teachers; b) no existing approaches or materials are really adequate to the task, so successful teaching *requires* a great deal of personal innovation and creativeness, c) because "approaches" are inadequate, individual "techniques" are more important in the success of teaching, especially techniques that are created by individual teachers; d) determine whether a technique or activity is successful, whether it works or not. If something seems successful according to a teacher's private criteria, that is enough reason to prefer it over something that a book or theorist has recommended; e) each *student* is an individual also, and good teachers determine individual needs and teach to them. Students' needs cannot and should not be predetermined; f) external and objective measures of student success and failure such as standardized tests and evaluations done by persons unfamiliar with the student and his or her instructional experience are not valid. Such measures do not take into account the teachers' contributions, which exceed the curriculum as defined by objectives, and they do not measure the affective value of teachers' contributions; g) the employment situation must include substantial time for teachers to prepare their lessons (cf. *b* and *c*, above). Teaching more than 10 or 15 hours a week reduces necessary creativity and leads to exhaustion and a deterioration of teacher-effectiveness; h) good teachers can only operate in skill areas and at ability levels where their interests and strengths apply.

From the point of view of an employer, artists are preferred when: a) control of classroom content and procedure is believed to be the responsibility of individual teachers; b) program management is restricted to the formalities of class size, room assignments, scheduling, etc.; c) coordination among teachers is either not necessary or is sufficient when conducted on an *ad hoc* basis; d) program goals, curriculum matters, policies regarding classroom procedure (attendance, lesson plans, etc.), and presence on the job site are matters for individual teacher discretion or democratic determination. Management's role is either advisory or limited to enforcing the decisions of individuals or the group.

In summary, teachers-as-artists are characterized by a need to be free of program constraints which they perceive to interfere with creativity or with the teachers' freedom to adapt to their perception of students' real needs. Artists claim to be able to achieve a high degree of student involvement in their classes because of their own commitment and skill at maximizing appropriateness. Artists and their students often report a high degree of satisfaction with a class, although this may not correlate with success measured objectively.

It would be possible and useful to come up with additional attributes of both extremes (and we would be interested in your suggestions). What concerns us here, however, is not the specification of the extremes but: a) the extent to which they are or should be matched in practice; b) the degree to which they differ from extreme to extreme; and c) the degree to which employers' and employees' views of teacher-roles differ. The first two concerns should be better addressed by teacher education programs and by professional journals and organizations. Certification and other efforts towards professional standardization are relevant here. The third concern should be addressed to employers, either by individuals in the process of job-hunting, or

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ROLE MODELS

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again, by professional organizations. Too often we have seen employers hire under an unspoken understanding of one or the other role-type and get the opposite, to the dissatisfaction of both parties. There is an obligation on employers to articulate their conditions and on teachers to seek and accept only what they regard as professionally responsible.

But many teachers and employers reject both role-types and claim something else which is often an impossibly inconsistent mixture of both. We believe that there is an intermediate ideal, an ideal which defines teachers who are responsive to both the established goals of a coordinated teaching program and to the theoretical and practical state-of-the-art. Ideal teachers actively and continually try to achieve a balance between individual students' needs and the concerns of the broader program. Not surprisingly, we label our ideal *teachers-as-craftsmen.*

In our definition of craftsmen we join in a rejection of both extreme models. Technicians are convenient for management and several well-known ESL programs seem to be characterized by something approaching this type. It is unjust to characterize the whole profession with this model, however. There is no theory, approach, or set of materials which can adequately determine classroom practice or program design in ESL today. Inadequacy and inappropriateness require a significant amount of teacher interpretation and contribution. Performance objectives can be instrumental in defining and standardizing a curriculum but no set of objectives adequately characterizes communicative competence in any domain. Objective measures are useful in determining some aspects of performance, but many of the major critical variables remain resistant to measurement.

On the other hand, the artist's highly personal view of teaching precludes meaningful efforts toward program continuity and coordination. Cooperation between colleagues is difficult for artists since one teacher's goals and techniques may not be compatible with another's. The degree to which artists restrict themselves to certain skill areas or ability levels limits their ability to articulate their classes with others in other areas or levels because they are likely to be unfamiliar with what is taught elsewhere and quite likely to be distrustful of others' techniques.

Finally, there is a disturbing attitude toward the teaching act which is common to both many artists and technicians, that is, that the *subject matter* being taught is subordinate to the *manner* in which it is taught. Extreme technicians believe that they can teach anything, given the right techniques, materials and approach. Extreme artists also believe that their approaches are so original and distinctive that they will work for almost anything or can be adapted to almost anything. We reject these extremes because neither recognizes the importance of the most salient quality found in craftsmen: to begin with knowledge and principles and to modify them to the degree that individual cases require but program concerns allow.

ESL craftsmen are students (not finished knowers) of the subject matter first, and principled and disciplined communicators of it second. Craftsmen know the language, what is known about it and what is not. Craftsmen also know how languages can and cannot be taught, and how they may be taught under what circumstances. All of this is based on critical review of the body of knowledge that constitutes the profession, not on hearsay or personal speculation. Having prepared themselves, craftsmen approach the classroom with a set of principled assumptions which they attempt to apply in a controlled and consistent manner to the reality of the given class.

Because they are students of the subject they are able to teach over a broad range of skill areas and ability levels, modifying approaches accordingly. Their knowledge, both theoretical and practical, is not bounded by personal experience nor embodied in whatever set of materials is being used. They are able to articulate their classes with others at different levels and in different skill areas because they know what is, or should be, taught elsewhere in a coordinated program. Craftsmen are acutely aware of the need for ongoing self-education. They are aware that the teacher who does not seek out and share knowledge is doomed to continually reinventing the wheel.

The profession of teaching ESL contains a healthy variety of teacher-types, but, in practice, we lack a definition. This may be what leads so many employers to insist on "experience" as the single most important criterion in judging teachers, potential or practicing. We are suggesting that there are more specific criteria than that, that experience can be evaluated in terms of the teacher role it has prepared a candidate for. And the all-too-frequent conflict between individual teacher goals and program or employer goals might be avoided if more attention were paid to the role that the teacher, experienced or not, is expected to play in the overall instructional process. □

CONFERENCE PAPER PRESENTATION: STEP-BY-STEP PROCEDURES

by Marge Kaplan
Roseville Minnesota Public Schools

Your paper has been accepted for conference presentation. Initially you have a burst of pride and self-satisfaction that your work has been considered valuable. But, subsequently, you realize there are several issues about the presentation to be considered. Will you plan to read the paper as you have written it? Or, will you adapt the written form to an oral presentation: If the latter is your choice, how is this done?

Although there are some presenters who literally stand in front of an audience and read what they have researched and organized, the success of this approach is questionable. Possibly, if you are well-known in your field, an audience will allow you this type of latitude. However, most people who take part in such a session go away feeling they could have read the paper themselves and at their own convenience. The nature of conference attendance allows the professional several concurrent options. Since sessions are chosen on the basis of interest, need, and application for the classroom, it is not uncommon for people to walk in and out until they find something they consider valuable. The technique of reading a paper can be deadly. One must always be aware that people consider their time a precious asset and few will tolerate being bored.

How then can a writer be faithful to his conference topic and, at the same time, keep his audience informed and involved? Prior to the actual presentation, there are several options which can be investigated. Basic to all these approaches is the premise that the written word must be supplemented. Supplements can include: input and critiquing from other professionals, audiovisual aids, and audience participation.

No matter how thoroughly a topic has been researched, people in the field have both practical suggestions and additional literary resources. Other professionals are flattered when asked to critique another person's work. Even though it might take them considerable time to give either verbal or written input, it is rare to find a person who would refuse this opportunity.

At the most basic level, a critique of the clarity of the paper can be very helpful. Rewriting, no matter how frustrating and time-consuming, should be an inherent part of paper presentation. In fact, subsequent to the conference, requests for papers to be published in the conference journal are common. Written revision, at this point, is time well spent.

Once the writer has revised his paper, he should re-outline its contents. This can be used in two ways: first, as a skeletal framework for the verbal presentation, and, second, as a guide for creating an abstract—the written summary which will appear in the conference program.

Unlike the written paper, in your "talking" paper audiovisual aids should be plentiful. Initially, with the use of an overhead projector, the presenter can flash an outline of what he will be discussing. The audience is then able to get a quick overview of the presentation and is better prepared to ask questions. This is also an excellent way to help people remember what you have said. A knowledgeable presenter must be sensitive to the conference-goer who attends several sessions in a brief period of time. After the second or third presentation, the person watching starts to confuse one paper or presentation with another and can experience conference "burnout." Audiovisuals will help minimize this problem. If you must read parts of your paper, follow the reading with visual examples.

Another inclusion, often considered essential to conference presentations, is the use of the handout. Conference-goers like to walk away with something they can take home. Many people have been sent by their schools or universities and they are expected to share their experiences. When the handout should be distributed varies with the topic presented. Some feel that a handout is distracting and should therefore be given at the end of the session. In this way, people have a written record of what has been said, can refer to it for ready recall, and, at the same time, have given their full attention to the oral presentation. Another approach is to distribute handouts as people walk in. This worked well in a group where suggestions for encouraging verbal interactions were given. Since transparencies were also included in this presentation, the participants could quickly copy the information from the visuals and put it beside the suggestions on the handout. In this way, if the observer wanted to summarize the paper for his colleagues at home, the data was already correlated.

How you handle audience involvement is another area to be considered. Decide what your comfort index is in dealing with on-the-spot discussions, controversy or problem-solving. If you don't want to involve other professionals, discourage questions or don't allow time for this to take place. However, this aspect of a presentation can be very exciting and can provide the discussion leader and his audience with supplemental information.

One part of paper presentation that is rarely discussed is the financial cost. Transparencies and handouts are expensive. Who is expected to finance these extras? Several resources are available and should be investigated. In some instances, your conference program chairperson may have funds for this purpose. Or, your school or university may allow use of their facilities. If these are not options, the presenter must consider financing the expenses himself and submitting the bill as a deductible professional expense.

Now that you have intellectually digested your solicited professional critiques, revised your written paper, decided on audiovisuals and prepared them, and structured the type of audience participation you feel comfortable with, it is professionally obligatory to practice and time your "talking paper". Using your skeletal outline, coordinate when and where you want to include your audiovisuals and then rehearse exactly what will be presented. Although presenters have often had considerable experience talking to groups, the fluidity and coherence of your presentation will be improved by practice and will free you to deal with your live audience.

At this point, you are ready. However, don't forget one important detail—how you look, or in more sophisticated terms, your professional demeanor. Although there will be many people at the conference who will be wearing informal clothing, you may be surprised to find that presenters are often wearing suits and dresses. Being dressed more formally adds a dimension of specialness to how you think of yourself and how your audience perceives you. Never underestimate how valuable this is.

Although anxieties and nervousness may precede your presentation, once you begin an air of confidence is important. You are a professional. You have something valuable to offer and the tone you set should corroborate this.

After all your preparations, you stand before your audience and give your paper. Afterwards, be critical and analyze what went well and what needs improvement. Many times you are asked to present the same paper again. So, keep all your notes, you master copies for handouts and your transparencies. After having gone through this experience, you should feel a sense of professional growth and achievement. You have added a new dimension to your skills and have shared information that you have researched and synthesized with other professionals. You are to be congratulated! □

A DIALOG IN VERSE CONCERNING ENGLISH TEACHING

(an excerpt)

by ? 'ichael Skupin
Unive.sity of Houston

Prof. Malleus accosteth Prof. Forceps

Malleus.

My students writhe and squirm; at times they doze.
Beneath the Spartan mask their boredom shows.
They doodle, sigh and daydream while I sing
Of prepositions, and the joy they bring.
They die a thousand deaths, they say, before
The hour's up; they fidget, sleep some more.
They curse the clock, and hate the class like Hell;
Some file their nails, all strain to hear the bell.
I rant, cajole and brandish charts and books;
They scowl there sullen-faced with martyrs' looks.
Nor clash of rods, projector's blinding ray,
Nor chalkboard true commands them as they stray.
The choicest fruits of yon ditto machine
I spread t'inflame them, still they sit serene.
When old Ulysses to the mast was bound,
At least his ears were teased by Siren sound;
But my disciples, like his wax-eared crew,
Glide off I know not where and dream anew.
While yet my farewell echoes on the breeze,
Their books are gathered, and they clutch their keys.
And lo! the zombie throng that shuffled in
Goes frisking forth to dally, loaf and sin.
I hear a varied babble as they go,
Of heathen tongues; the Bard's they do forgo.
Now lordly coaches bear the gang away,
And I bewail another wasted day.
Like Jeremiah now I roam the hall,
Lamenting that I even tried at all.

And yet, as I, distracted, pause to grieve,
I see *your* class, my colleague, will not leave.
Still, still they press with questions, still they yearn
For words and phrases: they are wild to learn.
Behold, Juan leaps and pushes back his chair.
His eyes are wide, his hand is in the air.
Stalwart Mohammed scribbles what you say,
And Helmut goes not answerless away,
Nor Yakov keen will let you go, until
You bless him, and his ears have had their fill.
Like Gideon's squadrons drinking at the shore,
They lay their books not down while heark'ning more:
Their dictionaries proud are yet to hand.
No TOEFL-terrors fright this doughty band.
Reluctantly they part. They warble clear
The new-discovered tongue they're learning here.
A Delphi-pilgrim, humble I beseech,
Oh, spurn me not, but teach me how to teach!

Forceps.

You rate yourself too low and me too high.
You want t'improve your style, and so do I.
Let's take a walk; I'll catch a later bus.
We'll have a drink, and then we can discuss
The status quo of English as a trade:
The breakthroughs, fads and theories that have made
This language-teaching business so involved.
We'll pick through them until your problem's solved.

Malleus.

But soft! I hear a colleague's charges roar.
It is no riot; he expounds his lore.
Now see, before a rainbow chart he stands.
He opens not his mouth, but waves his hands.
He smites the colors with his wand, as when
Good Moses struck the rock for thirsty men.
Now shrieks and cries of students fill the air.
Their brains are puzzled and their hearts despair.
The glowering Sphynx now beckons, now doth quell
The moans that from their fevered throats do swell.
In vain they clamor, still he spurs them on,
Breaks silence only when he sees a yawn.
The color-blind, abandoned on the way,
Do pant and squint, but cannot join the fray.
Survivors, though, who master every hue,
Like Siegfried, full of Fafnir's blood, construe
Exotic meanings in the world around:
Some see a striped sweater, they, a sound.
Whole volumes writ on neckties, socks and skirts,
And mystic runes inscribed on tie-dyed shirts;
The sunset's richness and the bower's shade
Will keep them well-read when their idioms fade.
We leave you, druids, to your language bright,
Beyond our reach, but not beyond our sight.

Forceps.

In vino veritas, I say. Let's have a beer
And talk about the tricks of our career. □

CHINA

Continued from page 9

on China explain that Chinese people who become good friends of foreigners may occasionally avoid their friends for short periods of time. These brief disappearances are sometimes due to pressures, overt or covert, from leaders wishing to ensure that their people do indeed exercise caution in dealing with foreigners. Foreigners seldom hear of problems that Chinese people may be having with their leaders, but if they should, old China hands advise them never to intervene.

On the plus side, we have already made a number of good friends for life. We have been freely exploring every nook and cranny of our city by bus, by bicycle, and on foot and discovering its secrets and surprises. We have asked for and received permission to visit villages in the countryside normally closed to foreigners, where no westerner has been seen for the past thirty years and few before that. Our students must be among the most eager and willing in the world. We are finding China in general and northeastern China in particular a challenge and an adventure. To all who may be coming our way, whether by plane or by armchair, welcome aboard!

Note: Any visitor to China will want to do some background reading. There are many excellent books out on China, both old and new. Our favorites are, in order of preference:

The Chinese: Portrait of a People, by John Fraser
Chinese Shadows, by Simon Leys
In the People's Republic, by Orville Schell
Stilwell and the American Experience in China, by Barbara Tuchman
Red Star Over China, by Edgar Snow

COLORLESS GREEN IDEAS

by Gregg Singer
Ohio University

What Means Ungrammatical?

I. *It was a Pomeranian I think, but I don't think so.*
Malloy, Samuel Beckett

II. *This is one of those things which sounds harder to play than it sounds.*
NPRC disc jockey

III. *Keep shampoo out of eyes. If it does, wash out with water.*
Shampoo label

VI. *With the radio blaring, she goes driving just as fast as she can now; She forgot all about the library she told her old man, now.*
Fun, Fun, Fun, The Beach Boys

V. *—You suppose that I could walk across the bay at low tide?*
—You might could.

Save during the Structuralist hiatus, the problem of 'correctness' has always been a bugaboo for serious students of language. In a sense, post-Chomskyean linguistics has brought us full circle to the prescriptivists of the 18th century; again, linguistic principles are to be unearthed by discriminating well- from ill-formed pieces of language.

Unfortunately though, grammaticality as a concept seems unwilling to stand still. The current tendency is to regard 'deviant' words, sentences, or discourses as performance errors—that is, errors which occur somewhere between the brain's ideal language capacity and the mouth. I would submit, though, that all of the above sentences are clearly 'deviant' in some sense, but none are the result of performance errors. In fact, none of them are even 'mistakes' in the sense that Zwicky, Fromkin, and others have used the word.

The simplest form of deviance to account for is dialectal variance as in V. There exists apparently a rule in North Carolina English which permits the substitution of 'could' for 'be able to'. In SAE, two modals can never come back to back except in abutting sentences, e.g., 'I can, can I?'

The other examples are more difficult to account for, though. Do the Beach Boys have a rule stating: 'About' can never occur twice in the same sentence, especially if it interferes with rhyme and meter? I doubt it; yet few can detect the deviance of this sentence without prompting.

Is Beckett, in I., unaware of the ordinary implications of doubling negation? Does advertising copy have its own grammar such that III. is an 'acceptable' sentence pair? Or does a radio announcer dialect exist which regularizes semantic tangles like II.? I think not.

What the widespread acceptance of sentences such as these seems to suggest is that the actual standard we, as users of language, apply to language is one of intelligibility. The only sentences which actually slow us down are those in which deviance ambiguates (vulgar verb!) the speaker's intent. I'm certain that those shampoo directions were written by a native speaker and passed the muster of countless advertising executives. III. is only ungrammatical if grammaticality is defined as 'those utterances which a trained linguist will accept after reflection'.

(Reprinted from *Ohio TESOL News*. V. 2 Spring 1981). □

IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
New York University

Thanks again to Richard Yorkey for sharing lesson ideas that he has found successful. The following lesson descriptions were first presented at the Ontario TESOL Conference in Toronto, December, 1980. The *TESOL Newsletter* is pleased to have them in "It Works."

PAIRED PRACTICE

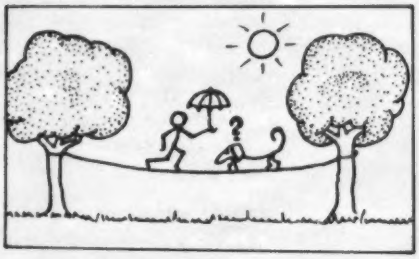
by Richard Yorkey
St. Michael's College

One enjoyable way to get intermediate ESL students to interact with each other is to challenge them with art! There are two interaction activities of this kind that I have found particularly useful.

Picture That!

Materials for this kind of oral language practice are very simple to prepare and easy to retrieve from your files whenever there is time for this "structured interaction."

Students work in pairs. Student A is given a picture such as the following:



Stick figures or stylized drawings of an unusual scene are best. There should be enough detail to elicit a reasonable stretch of descriptive language but not too much so that the drawing is cluttered or the communication takes too long. The picture can be pasted inside a manila folder so that Student A can easily see the picture while describing it, but Student B cannot see it. Student A is given the following directions with the picture:

> Your task is to describe this picture to your partner. Your description must be accurate enough so that he or she can draw a similar picture. Your partner must not look at the picture! He or she can only listen, ask for clarification, and draw what you describe. After your partner has drawn the picture from your description, compare the two pictures and discuss any differences.

Student B is given a paper on which is a blank box, the same size as A's picture, and the following directions:

> Your partner has a picture with stick figures which he or she will describe to you. You must not look at the picture! Just listen, and as your partner describes each detail, recreate the picture by drawing it in the frame below. If your partner's directions do not seem clear, ask for clarification. Your purpose is to make your picture as similar as possible to the one being described to you. When you have finished, look at the original picture. Compare the two pictures and discuss any differences with your partner.

The beauty of this activity, aside from its ease and speed of preparation, is that students get immediate feedback. The accuracy of the communication or comprehension is quickly verified simply by comparing the drawing with the original picture. In addition to this pedagogical advantage, there is the great amusement that students enjoy when they compare all the art work of the class.

Picture Differences

In this language interaction, each one of a pair of students is given a picture that is similar but not exactly alike. Their task is to discover in what ways the pictures are the same and different. For example, each student is given one of the pictures below and the following directions:

> You and your partner have pictures that are similar but not exactly alike. Describe your picture to each other in order to discover their differences. Do not look at each other's picture! Discover verbally, not visually, at least a dozen ways in which the pictures are different.

For teachers who do not have the time or the talent to draw pictures, duplicate illustrations might be cut from two magazines and then, with typewriter correction fluid, certain things be blocked out and slight differences added. Again, the accuracy of the communication or comprehension can be immediately verified when the two pictures are compared.

For this interaction activity, students are given the task but no guidance on how to proceed. Most of them start at some specific point (the bus or the signs in the shop, for example, or they start at the left and work towards the right—although several of my Arab students reversed this direction). Some students, however, begin with a more global approach. In the case of one pair, when a student started this way ("I have a street scene with a bus on the right and buildings on the left"), his partner interrupted her to say, "No, no—think by think." When this failed to communicate his meaning, he reprocessed the message and said, "Only one think at a time." Somehow his partner understood this and so she started with the windows at the upper left—and there they quickly discovered the first difference.

Activities of this kind, which include common everyday words, often reveal surprising and serious gaps in vocabulary. These students (at a high intermediate level) had just been reading about deductive logic and had learned such words as *deduction*, *ambiguity*, *premise*, and *inference*. But they were not sure of the word for curtains (and in fact at first used their native language word, *cortinas*). Not familiar with the word *pole*, they resorted to calling it a *flag stick*.

Picture differences can sometimes be especially designed to test lexical or phonological problems caused by interferences of the native language—for example, *library* for *bookstore*, or as in this particular picture, the pronunciation contrast of *Hal* and *Al*.

Incidentally, for paired practice of this kind, a language lab can be useful. In most current language laboratories, it is possible to connect two students together so that they can converse with each other as if they were speaking on a telephone. A simple patch cord between the two inputs on the control console allows the two students to communicate without interfering with others in the lab. Furthermore, the teacher or lab monitor can listen in, or even record the conversation. Students enjoy listening to themselves afterward, and many of the error analysis studies that my graduate students conduct are based on the recorded data. □

ROLE PLAYING IN CLL FOR THE ESP CLASSROOM

by Gregory J. Thompson
Yamaguchi University, Japan

This paper describes the use of role playing in the Community Language Learning (Curran, 1972) milieu to create an atmosphere for learners of English for Special Purposes that will enable them to correct their own grammar errors, incorporate a specialized vocabulary into their conversation, and work toward attaining independence in using English for their occupational purposes. Classes, averaging from 6-10 learners, were conducted at large companies in Japan whose members were training to go abroad for business trips.

Each class meeting was organized around a task-oriented role play developed by the instructor based on real problems faced by the company. On one occasion management trainees were given the following hypothetical problem:

The Buji Film Company, a major film producing firm, relies on export sales for about 50% of its income. Recently, however, the rising value of the yen has decreased incoming revenues from abroad. Unfortunately, domestic sales are saturated so the company's future expansion depends on how well it can compete on the world market, thus making any drastic price hike self-defeating. In addition, the Japanese government, under pressure from foreign countries to reduce its huge trade surplus, has urged large exporters (including Buji) to voluntarily curb exports by 15%. If exports are not restricted, there is a chance that foreign countries will retaliate with protectionist tariffs that would hamper efforts to expand world trade. If the company does curb exports, however, there is a danger that company growth would be halted and an overabundance of personnel would lead to bankruptcy.

Learners were instructed to look up meanings of new words and to read the passage before coming to class. During the learning session they were given a situation and task based on the problem assigned for reading:

Situation—*Place*: The executive meeting room
Time: About 11:00 P.M.
People Present: Chairman of the Board President
Vice President—General Affairs
Vice President—Personnel
Vice President—Accounts
Vice President—Export Sales
Vice President—Domestic Sales

Task—To reach a consensus on a major policy decision concerning exports that will help the company without damaging the company's external relations.

Learners assigned roles to each other and began the meeting around a conference table. The instructor assumed the role of *language counselor* (Curran, 1976:28) placing himself behind the circle of learners free to move behind each of them as necessary. A tape recorder and attached microphone (with cord long enough to reach each learner and with an on/off switch that controlled the tape recorder) was placed in the center of the table. As learners began working on the task, the instructor positioned himself behind each speaker. If the speaker had no grammatical errors and was clearly able to communicate his idea, the counselor tapped him lightly on the shoulder to acknowledge that what he had said was correct and understandable. The speaker, in turn, repeated the utterance into the microphone. If, on the other hand, a speaker made grammatical or rhetorical errors, the counselor in a non-judgmental tone rephrased the speaker's utterance. The speaker then repeated the corrected version into the microphone. The session continued in this manner until the task was completed or until the group decided to postpone action on the problem—usually about 60 minutes.

During the remaining class time, the instructor played back the tape so that learners could hear their problem-solving efforts in English after which they were given five minutes of silence to reflect on the experience and to write down questions or comments, if any. Learners were free to make comments or ask questions after this period, but the instructor avoided direct explanations, encouraging learners to assume an inductive approach in solving their language problems (since at their level that is what they would have to do anyway). Supplemental readings taken from newspapers were provided to expose learners to the new vocabulary through a different medium. In the following class session, the instructor supplied copies of the transcript of the taped role play for learners' reference.

All learners in the class had had approximately 10 years of training in English, so none were considered rank beginners. Based on Curran's (1976:28-30) classifications of psychological dependence on the counselor where stage I is total dependence and stage V is total independence, most learners fell into stages III and IV. Curran (1976:53) suggests that learners in these stages need the counselor only for immediate correction of grammar errors and for idioms and subtle expressions.

This particular course consisted of 16 role plays ranging from topics describing personnel problems to marketing research problems. The following is another example of a conference-room role play:

Problem:

The Buji Film Company is a major Japanese film and camera producer. During the 70's the company, due to astute management and quality engineering, penetrated the world market with its products. It even showed signs of threatening its giant competitor, Westman Godak. Success, however, is the product of good planning—planning that must be begun years in advance based on sound analysis of market trends.

The trends for the 80's do not look so bright for Buji should the company continue its present course of production. It seems that the development of sophisticated video equipment is challenging the present-day movie film (and perhaps still photography as well) for recording events. Indeed, when a family can watch on their own television set home movies of themselves, a visible threat to conventional film seems imminent.

Task:

1. Define the problem of the threat of video tape to the conventional film industry.
2. Make predictions about the marketability of video tape and conventional film by 1985.
3. Take necessary steps to allow Buji to compete and expand either in conventional film, video tape, or both.

In other classes, role plays that dealt with courtroom drama and government reorganization contributed to the development of a specialized vocabulary in the political and legal fields.

Besides building specialized vocabularies in learners, CLL-role play lessons enabled students to systematically deal with their own grammatical problems while minimizing the threat of being corrected by an authoritarian teacher. In addition, learners were required to deal with their insecurities about expressing their ideas in English. There is no limit in type or number of role plays that can be developed for this purpose. □

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I HEARS, I SPEAKS, I READS, I WRITES, WHY I FAILIN?

by Iona L. Anderson
Medgar Evars College

When a student uses syntactic patterns like I hears, I talks, I reads or I writes he is generally labeled uneducated and unintelligent. These negative connotations brand the student as inferior, and he commands no respect. The fact is that Black English is a rule-governed system of language, historically linked to a West African culture that was transported to the New World at the time of slavery. Both students and teachers need to become aware of the contrastive linguistic features that may or may not be appropriate language performance for certain situations. In the exploration of language, one observes a teaching/learning process in action. This is a new concept for teachers who have been traditionally trained.

The classroom ought to be an organic learning environment where active participation and creative teaching/learning experiences take place. But this educational concept is based upon new philosophies and new theories that are in conflict with the way teachers have been trained in the past. Under old philosophies historically observed in Aristotle's "realism" and Plato's "idealism", teachers have been trained to be the only authority in the classroom, to initiate and direct all discussions, to implement a prescribed curriculum, to instill Western European values and morals, and to expect every student to achieve at the same rate and in the same way.

The criticisms launched against these philosophies derive largely from the fact that they ignore the sensorimotor needs of the individual; set unobtainable goals; overlook the possibility of error; cannot deal with failure; and most importantly, deemphasize the cultural and linguistic experiences students bring with them to the classroom.

The history of education and its progress has become an international concern since the formation of the United Nations. Many authors (Faure et al., 1972) noted economic progress had the most influence on the development of an education system. However, sociopolitical developments are now progressively beginning to influence education. As more skills were needed for technological progress so also were more people trained to perform these skills. Focusing on the social aspects of life, the authors noted that education in a primitive society was family oriented and revolved around learning from parents or listening to tales passed down from older folks. Education remained static until the Industrial Revolution popularized it. However, James (1909) and Dewey (1956), in attempting to bring meaning to education, reviewed the ancient concept of learning in practical social situations where the individual through problem solving is responsible for his own education. Studies like these remained isolated ones and have difficulty in being implemented. As a result of the Civil Rights movement in America in the 1950's and 1960's American education received a jolt. Minorities were demanding equal opportunities to obtain the "good life" of which education is considered the necessary factor. America was unprepared to meet the educational demands of the minority groups who either immigrated or migrated to inner cities especially in the north. The federal, state and local governments started funding research studies to advance democratic principles within necessary educational reform.

Recent studies in child development and growth conducted by Winnecott, Piaget, Maslow and others are gradually influencing educators to look at each child's learning style based upon his maturation level, his interests, his motivation, his sociocultural backgrounds, his verbal and his non-verbal linguistic behavior.

Modern linguists are also making significant contributions to the learning process. There are movements toward the pragmatics of language communication and discourse, toward the process of learning rather than toward the end product, toward social interaction and shared experiences, and toward language as a common core in everyday life. Linguists are bringing an awareness of the how, why, and what of language learning and an appreciation of the intricacies of human language in a regional and geographic context. The socio-linguists in particular have sparked considerable interest in second language learning, bilingual education, and dialectic differences in language. They are pointing up the importance of language on the development of "self" and this linkage between language and self can hardly be overestimated. Teachers have not been required to study the anthropological nature of language development, linguistics or second language teaching methods needed to understand the problems facing the linguistically diverse groups in their midst. Because society is threatened by change and because education is a reflection of society, the problem of miseducation continues. Many young folks become pushouts or dropouts. Many who aspire for higher learning find themselves enrolled in remedial classes in college because they had not been given the fundamental basic skills for continued learning in their previous educational experiences.

The newly instituted ESL/ESD Program is designed to focus attention on those linguistic differences which have become barriers to upward mobility academically, socially, or vocationally for those who are learning English as a Second Language or Standard English as a Second Dialect. The deficiencies these students have do not imply cognitive impoverishment but years of deprived educational opportunity in which they simply were not taught the language of economic survival even though they needed it in order to succeed in the educational world.

The philosophy behind the ESL/ESD program is that given due respect for one's native language or dialect experiences every student can learn standard English. Students become aware that knowing more than one language or dialect has an educational advantage. The key to survival and success is knowing what language is appropriate to use in various life situations.

Because there have been many studies in teaching the bilingual person, there are programs designed to meet this specific need. However, little or no attention was given to second dialect speakers until very recently. The recent 1979 Ann Arbor Decision that mandated the schools to teach standard English will perhaps spark research coming and eventually programs will be developed to meet the needs of students speaking Black English.

Before the ESL/ESD project was written and funded, ESL students had become college dropouts because they lacked the necessary communication skills to function in the classroom. The retention rate for ESD students was equally low. They were constant repeaters of the freshman basic skills classes. College faculty to some degree recognized that language differences played a significant role in the progress of the second language learners, but the language difference between standard English and Black English was obscure. Sociolinguists, namely Stewart, Shuy, Dillard, Labov and others upon observing Black students in their own environments noted that they were communicating adequately within that milieu, and that their inability to achieve in school had nothing to do with cognitive deficits. The problem was considered an attitudinal one as white teachers looked at second dialect students as incapable of learning; or as blacks themselves believed that white society had to accept their new attention to "blackness." As a result of these attitudinal studies mainly conducted by Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching (1976), Washington reacted defensively to ignore this sensitive area of human con-

Continued on next page

I HEAR, I SPEAK . . . .

Continued from page 17

flict and to stop funding any programs directed to the language needs of Black students. Because of this neglect students are witnessing extreme difficulties in reading and writing in standard English as they move up the grades through high school or attempt to enter the colleges. We, as educators, must take another critical look at what is happening to our youth. We must face the problems of miseducation much earlier in a child's life and move to reduce or remove the extreme remediation experienced in later life.

Although both ESL and ESD students need to become linguistically competent, in the final analysis, the approach to the teaching/learning process is difficult. The ESL students need a longer period of time to practice listening and speaking English to extend their vocabulary within the content materials, to distinguish those comparative linguistic differences creating language interferences with the target language, and to understand the use of idomatic expressions in English. For the ESD student the emphasis is on contrasting those phonological, syntactical and semantic aspects of standard English that differ from Black English. Attention is given to oral production of language and its relationship to reading and writing in Standard English. Many of these students were never made aware of the difference between the two linguistic systems until they entered these ESD classes in our college. Psychologically, they are motivated to learn these differences, especially since no effort is made to ridicule anyone's language but to respect it. Using students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds, instructors move them to explore all phases of the teaching/learning process in moving towards mastery of a new language or dialect. When students are exposed to tracing the roots of their language and culture, they discover not only the importance of language but also the fun one can have in learning to use language in the context of life's experiences. For example, the instructor extracts those features of language that students use in their everyday discourse and focuses teaching on those features.

The following examples point up the differences between Black English systems and standard English.

1) Verb and noun agreement differences between the two dialects

I talks	He speak
I reads	He read
I writes	He write

2) Omission of the verb to be. (See example 6)

3) The substitution of /N/ for ing.
   Bein for Being
   Goin for Going

4) Substitution of d for th at the beginning and ending of words
   Dey for they wid for with
   Dis for this

5) Substitution of f for th at the ends of words and sometimes in the middle of words
   mouf for mouth brofer for brother
   monf for month
   teef for teeth

6) Substitution of t for th
   tank for thank
   trough for through

7) Subject noun pronoun redundancy
   My mother she at home
   His friend he like me

8) Prepositions in different places
   She keep hittin' on me

9) The dropping of letters
   "guf" for "gulf"
   "lef" for "left"

The above grammatical and phonological structures are a few of the Black vernacular structures that are contrasted to standard English. By means of the appropriate exercises, minimal pairs, dictation, cloze procedures, pronunciation games or dialogues, students practice standard English usage for short periods of time several days per week.

In summation, teaching students today means changing from old philosophies to new ones, selecting those theoretical concepts that consider the "whole child" or the humanistic approach to learning. It means more attention to selecting interesting, relevant materials, and to training teachers at all levels—early childhood through college—to employ new methodology in new settings based upon new knowledge about language learning. Teacher training institutions need to prepare teachers for the "real world" by requiring courses in the nature of language, cultural linguistics and other disparate disciplines related to language. Instead of the required 6 credits in reading before receiving a license to teach, it should be 6 credits in language. In the integration of all of the language arts skills, reading and writing problems will diminish. □

FOOTNOTES

1 Faure, D., H. Felipe, A. R. Kaddours, H. Lopes, A. Petrovsky, including reading. Perhaps with concentration M. Rahnema, and F. C. Ward. LEARNING TO BE: THE WORLD OF EDUCATION TODAY AND TOMORROW. London: United Nations, UNESCO, and George Harrup and Co., 1972.

2 Dewey, J. SCHOOL AND SOCIETY. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1956.

(Reprinted from *CUNY News*)

ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY FOR THE LANGUAGE TEACHER

Lev I. Soudek
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Modern grammatical terminology does present many vexing problems for ESL/EFL teachers and their students. New developments in linguistic theory, the growth of cross-discipline approaches such as psycholinguistics or neurolinguistics, new schools and methodologies in applied linguistics, all these have brought about a stream of new terms. Even more annoying is the overburdening of older established terms with scores of new denotations. Unfortunately, textbook authors and writers of articles and reviews in our areas often do not bother to define or at least to characterize the terms they use.

In this respect, Professor Crystal's new paperback *Dictionary* (see below for references) is an excellent tool to be kept on the language teacher's desk. Crystal is a well-known British scholar who has specialized in several areas of applied linguistics. This is why his *Dictionary* is exceptionally strong in its focus on applications of linguistic science. Many of his more than two thousand terms are given extensive coverage, similar to that of an encyclopedia, with lucid descriptions and examples.

Alice Maclin's *Reference Guide to English* represents a different genre. Much more practically oriented, it is a treat for the language teacher as well as for intermediate and advanced non-native students of English. It is a very useful glossary of rhetorical, grammatical, and compositional terms and problem areas facing the foreign learner who tries to cope with, mainly, the written norm of English in academic or business settings. Close to two hundred main sections, in alphabetical order, deal with problems of English grammar and usage, with specific focus on the needs of the foreign learner. Hundreds of secondary terms (all listed and cross-referenced in a thorough and synoptic index) are characterized and exemplified in numerous subdivisions of the main sections. The book has illuminating passages on the use of prepositions, articles, idioms and many other areas vital in our never-ending attempts to explain and teach English. It is a useful and very practical reference tool for our daily problems in language instruction. □

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THE CASE FOR NARROW READING

by Stephen D. Krashen
University of Southern California[1]

Our tendency in both second language and foreign language teaching has been to supply students with input on a variety of topics. "Readers", for example, typically include several different sorts of articles and stories, and introductory courses in literature usually give the student only one (short) example of each author's work. These practices derive from the premise that exposure to different styles and genres is beneficial.

The purpose of this note is to suggest that narrow reading, and perhaps narrow input in general, is more efficient for second language acquisition. I am suggesting, in other words, *early* rather than late specialization in the second language acquisition career of acquirers, encouraging reading on only one topic, and several books by the same author in early and intermediate stages.

The case for narrow reading is based on the idea that the acquisition of both structure and vocabulary comes from *many* exposures in a comprehensible context: we acquire new structures and words when we understand the messages, many messages, they encode.[2] Narrow reading facilitates this process in several ways. First, since each writer has favorite expressions and a distinctive style, and since each topic has its own vocabulary and discourse as well, narrow reading provides built-in review. Second, familiarity with context is a tremendous facilitator of comprehension, and thus a facilitator of language acquisition. The more one reads in one area, the more one learns about the area, and the easier one finds subsequent reading in the area.

An example of this can be termed the "first few pages" effect.[3] Intermediate students, reading a novel in a second language, often report that they find the first few pages of a new author's work hard going. After this initial difficulty, the rest of the book goes much easier. This is due to the fact that the context, the story, was new, and, in addition, the reader had not adjusted to the author's style. Providing only short and varied selections never allows our students to get beyond this stage. Instead, it forces them to move from frustration to frustration.[4]

It may be argued that narrow reading produces only the ability to read in just one area. This is not true. First of all, deep reading in any topic will provide exposure to a tremendous amount of syntax and vocabulary that is used in other domains. Any technical field, for example, will utilize subtechnical vocabulary, words such as *function*, *inference*, *isolate*, *relation*, etc. (Cowen, 1974). Second, we do not expect the student to read only in one area for the rest of his or her second language career. The best way to expand might be a gradual movement from closely related field to related field, taking advantage of the overlap in context and language.

The clearest advantage of narrow reading, however, is that it is potentially very motivating. In any anthology, it is certain that most topics are not of great interest to many members of the class. The combination of new vocabulary, unfamiliar style, the lack of context, and uninterest in the subject matter insures that much reading remains an exercise in deliberate decoding. On the other hand, narrow reading in a topic of real interest has a chance of resulting in students' reading *for the message*, for meaning, in very early stages, a phenomenon considered to be essential for real language acquisition.[5]

Here are some suggestions. Within the framework of the regular class, narrow reading can be encouraged by literature courses (e.g. for the third year foreign language student) that deal with the work of a single author (we usually delay these until at least the senior year). In second language acquisition situations, a course could focus on a single topic, such as current events (with regular reading of the daily newspaper), history of the new country, etc. At the University of Ottawa, experimentation is now taking place in which second language students do entire courses in subject matter. In such courses, students are tested on content and not language. To help insure comprehensible input, native speakers are excluded. This "adult immersion" (see e.g. Cohen and Swain, 1976) is the logical extension of the narrow reading idea, since students focus on one area for an entire semester (see Krashen, in press, for further discussion). □

FOOTNOTES

1. This paper was written while the author was a visiting professor at the Centre for Second Language Learning, University of Ottawa (fall, 1981).
2. See e.g. Krashen, 1981.
3. I thank Mari Wesche for pointing this out.
4. But see Hauptman (1981) for a discussion of ways of alleviating this problem by preparing students for new material.
5. Philip Hauptman has pointed out to me that narrow reading could have a negative effect if the topic the acquirer is forced to read in is in an area the acquirer dislikes!

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ESL READING OBJECTIVES: USING SEMANTIC, SYNTACTIC AND DISCOURSE CUES

by Karen O'Neill and Carol Qazi
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In 1967, Kenneth S. Goodman, then at the University of Michigan, revolutionized the study of reading when he proposed that reading is a "psychological guessing game." Goodman hypothesized that efficient readers do not laboriously read word-by-word; rather, they utilize the redundancy of language and their knowledge of semantic, syntactic and discourse constraints inherent in the language to predict structures. This complex process of predicting structures, sampling them against the cumulative semantic context which builds in readers' minds, and then confirming or disconfirming the hypotheses which readers have formed allows readers to greatly increase their speed and comprehension.

Since Goodman introduced his theories in the 60's, a considerable amount of research has greatly increased our understanding of the reading process and the similarities between L1 (first) and L2 (second language) reading. At Studies in American Language at San Jose State University, we wanted to put what is currently understood about L1 and L2 reading to work in an ESL reading curriculum for our four level, intensive, college preparatory English program (TOEFL range 350-550). The objective of this curriculum is to provide ESL students with a systematic approach to the English language reading process and help take them to a near-native reading and comprehension level necessary to compete in the university. Each of the four levels of the curriculum focuses on identifying the semantic, syntactic and discourse constraints occuring in reading.

The first two levels of this curriculum focus on decoding syntactic and graphic cues. The ability to succeed in literal comprehension tasks is fundamental to the ability to achieve other levels of comprehension. A thorough knowledge of syntax is essential in reading because good readers use this knowledge to read in phrasal chunks. Work on decoding graphic cues will vary depending on the first language of the students. Students with native language alphabets other than left-to-right Roman alphabets may require more emphasis on graphic decoding.

While the role of syntax is important, reading, as a decoding process, does not require readers to produce complex structures. It is for this reason that ESL readers need to go beyond the syntactic level of reading and be trained in utilizing semantic and discourse cues when reading. Like L1 readers, they need to predict structures, form hypotheses about a reading passage and test those hypotheses. While all levels of this curriculum introduce skills which will form an awareness of semantic and discourse cues in reading, levels three and four emphasize these skills because, by the time ESL students reach the high-intermediate to advanced levels of instruction and are about to begin full-time university work, they must begin to increase their speed and comprehension in order to compete. Also, they should be able to adjust their reading to a variety of reading tasks, such as skimming quickly to find general concepts in reading, scanning to find specific key words or facts, reading critically, making inferences, and reading for general, overall understanding.

To help improve their ability to use semantic and discourse constraints, higher-level ESL students are also taught to use their knowledge of word derivations, synonyms and synonymous expressions, antonyms and ability to guess the meaning of a word from its context. Usually, a cumulative understanding of the reading will aid students in guessing words. They should find it unnecessary to "cling" to a word when its meaning is not totally obvious. Knowing when to use

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WHERE IS THE LAND?

A Glimpse at Life in a Refugee Camp

The quiet beauty of the islands of Indonesia's Riau Province belies the continuing drama of Vietnamese boat people whose crowded craft wash up on these shores. In the middle of one of these islands, Galang, is a United Nations administered camp which serves as a temporary shelter and resettlement processing center for Indochinese refugees. They are brought from the islands where they land to Galang where they await the determination of their fate.

I traveled to Galang to be part of a Ford Foundation funded team evaluating the camp's ESL program which was run by the Save the Children Foundation and the Experiment in International Living. Entering the camp I was worried about how I would react when confronted with starving people jammed into makeshift shelters. Fortunately during the past year the concentrated efforts of the UN, supplemented by several private agencies, had vastly improved living conditions and provided adequate food supplies. The images created by television and the press had been realities but were in the past. Instead I found a vibrant village of 8000, not unlike villages I had visited in Africa and Central America. Refugees were housed in barrack-like buildings which served as sleeping quarters. Families had used poles and tarps to construct kitchen areas alongside the barracks. There were well kept gardens, happy children, a market place, a school, an open air movie theater, a constant flow of people, and all the other accoutrements garnered by people everywhere in an attempt to lead normal, if temporary, lives. This tranquility and happiness followed the wrenching decision to leave a homeland, relatives, and possessions and endure a dangerous sea crossing to an unknown destination. It seemed as though 8000 people were breathing a sigh of relief.

An early morning walk through the camp brought glimpses of daily life: a makeshift sports club where joggers and weight lifters were hard at work, roadside stands offering cigarettes and freshly baked bread, the market where vegetables and staples were being traded, refugees diligently hoeing and watering their gardens, students reviewing their lessons before class, men gathering in the simple coffee shops, the Indonesian Red Cross Hospital opening its doors, and a man readying his crudely built beauty shop for business. Meanwhile, hymns from the Protestant church on one hill came and went in the breeze and an occasional hint of incense wafted from the Buddhist temple on another hill.

Seeing refugees cheerful and in control of their day-to-day lives made me think sadly of the problems they might confront upon resettlement in the U.S.: the language barrier, an impossible housing situation, pushing and pulling from all the "helping" agencies, and at times outright hatred. A camp can provide refugees with only a temporary sanctuary from the consequences of their decision to leave their homeland. The joy of escape and relief of survival may fuel their days, but how long can it last.

I was touched by the slogans painted on the outside of some of the classroom buildings. Some were frivolous—"(Happy English", "Beware of Pirates—Don't Sleep" painted next to a picture of a boat being pitched about the seas. One truly struck home: "Where is the Land?" These refugees had found *terra firma*. But they had no home and no country and were probably permanently separated from all they had known. Emotionally, spiritually and economically they must still look to their future and wonder—"Where is the Land?"

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ESL READING OBJECTIVES

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a dictionary effectively is equally important to knowing how to use a dictionary effectively.

Successful readers, including successful L2 readers, are aware that good writers evaluate their audience and plan their expository strategies prior to writing. The main theme(s) of an article can be found in introductory paragraphs or title pages, topic sentences, sub-headings, marginal notations, etc. The writer's use of coordinating and subordinating structures and devices further guides the reader. Most importantly, students should use their knowledge of the major rhetorical patterns such as cause and effect, comparison and contrast, persuasion, etc., to determine the author's purpose and to locate major arguments in a reading.

The curriculum which follows is an attempt to break the reading process as a whole into manageable chunks and to sequence the introduction of the chunks in a way which may help L2 readers build a successful reading system in English. It should be pointed out that this curriculum is not geared to any particular textbook or books; it is probably advisable not to adhere to a single text, especially at the advanced level in order to give students a maximum variety of reading tasks. In addition, throughout all levels, teachers should provide students with whatever background information is necessary to ground their readings in the students' real world (referred to as a "cultural subcomponent" by Eskey).

Level I

Level Objective: Focus attention on efficient use of graphic and syntactic cues in reading.

By the end of the level, students should be able to:

1. Recognize print
   a. letters—upper and lower case
   b. numbers
   c. sentences—statements and questions
   d. punctuation—periods, question marks, exclamation points
   e. paragraph form
2. Recognize basic abbreviations (Ca., Ill., Mon., Oct., etc.)
3. Recognize plurals and possessives
4. Recognize basic suffixes (-ly, -ful, -er, -less, etc.)
5. Locate title page and author
6. Identify key words as main ideas in paragraphs
7. Scan schedules for facts
8. Locate information in a reading when phrasing of questions and answers correspond structurally
9. Guess general semantic and syntactic class of words from context clues
10. Recognize basic contractions (don't, won't, 'll, etc.)
11. Predict story line or topic from title or pictures
12. Place events in sequence by using syntactic signals (transitions)
13. Set goals for reading task (use illustrations, titles, headings, etc., to help set purposes for reading)
14. Frame questions about material read
15. Use punctuation to derive sentence meaning

Level II

Level Objective: Focus attention on further work in effective use of syntactic cues in reading.

By the end of the level, students should be able to:

1. Recognize basic prefixes (pre, un-, dis-, re-, etc.)
2. Recognize direct quotations and parentheses
3. Alphabetize words from lists
4. Verify spelling of unfamiliar words in an English/English dictionary
5. Use guide words in monolingual dictionary
6. Locate information using index and/or table of contents
7. Locate answers or information in text when questions and answers do not correspond structurally
8. Skim material to find answers
9. Decode relative clauses and reduced relative clauses
10. Comprehend meaning of common two word verbs
11. Draw conclusions from facts read
12. Make generalizations about facts read
13. Recognize rhetorical cues signaling:
    a. chronological order
    b. comparison
    c. contrast
    d. simple listing
14. Divide sentences into appropriate grammatical chunks

Level III

Level Objective: Focus attention on semantic, syntactic and discourse cues in reading.

By the end of the level, students should be able to:

1. Hypothesize author's purpose before reading by skimming article
2. Differentiate between varying styles of reading for various purposes such as skimming (for concepts), scanning (for facts), reading thoroughly (for total comprehension) and reading critically
3. Distinguish between fact and opinion
4. Identify supporting details
5. Analyze organization of reading to find main ideas and examples
6. Read technical charts and graphs
7. Use discourse cues to follow main ideas:
   a. transitions
   b. main points reiterated by use of synonyms and synonymous expressions
   c. verb tenses
8. Utilize rhetorical styles as a means of identifying information contained in paragraphs and essays:
   a. causal analysis
   b. comparison and contrast
   c. persuasion
   d. others
9. Summarize articles orally
10. Make inferences about material read
11. Find proof, cite sources
12. Judge author's intent after reading
13. Recognize roots and stems, prefixes and suffixes
14. Choose appropriate definition from a dictionary
15. Guess at meanings of "technicalese" ("gasohol", "technocrat", etc.)

Level IV

Level Objective: Focus attention on maximizing use of syntactic, semantic and discourse constraints to increase speed and comprehension to near-native level in a variety of reading tasks.

By the end of the level, students should be able to:

1. Decode all written sentences
2. Read in phrasal chunks
3. Determine meanings of words according to context
4. Determine meanings of words by using knowledge of derivations, synonyms, antonyms, etc.
5. Recognize propaganda techniques
6. Identify euphemisms
7. Determine formal/informal style and levels of diction
8. Place reading into meaningful context
9. Determine method of organization in reading (by using knowledge of all rhetorical styles)
10. Determine writer's purpose
11. Hypothesize or predict outcome of a reading
12. Determine content of reading by searching for main ideas and central themes in introductory paragraphs and topic sentences
13. Follow content of reading by determining cumulative meaning of passages or article as a whole

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SPEAKING IN EST

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When the materials development team of the UCLA-China Exchange Program approached the problem of teaching entry level speaking (low intermediate level: TOEFL mean = 425), it was decided that some book must be selected as core material. The Chinese students attending the Language Centers would come from traditional methods of language learning, emphasizing reading and writing at the expense of speaking and listening. Furthermore, the problem of teaching speaking was compounded by the ten-year interlude of the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) when English language study was deemphasized. Contact with native speakers of English, particularly Americans, was politically disadvantageous at that time, if it was possible at all. In view of these circumstances, then, it was thought that the use of a book would be both reassuring and beneficial to students steeped in traditional language learning methods by providing them with a tangible focus to the entry level speaking class. Unfortunately, there is a profound lack of commercially available materials for the EST (English for Science and Technology) speaking class. Because of this lack, *Nucleus: General Science* (Bates and Dudley-Evans, Longman Group, 1976) was chosen as the core material. *Nucleus* is an EST—oriented grammar with many positive aspects; a speaking text it is not. However, it was selected with the full realization that substantial revision and/or adaptation would have to be provided by the instructors using the text. The purpose of this paper is to describe those procedures developed by the Graduate School English Language Center (GSELC) of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, sponsored by the UCLA-China Exchange Program. The method described below is particularly useful on two accounts. First, it makes use of *bone fide* EST material for the speaking class in the form of *Nucleus*. Second, it has proven adaptable for the teaching of large (25+) class sizes, a phenomenon frequently encountered while teaching in China.

Material Requirements

Nucleus is divided into twelve units which are in turn divided into three or four sections. While in some units, the information in later sections depends on a knowledge of the previous sections, generally speaking, the sections within the units can be used as self-contained entities. Furthermore, since the students are scientists learning EST, they are already familiar with the theoretical content of the units.

Method

Having three to four self-contained sections within each unit makes the text easy to use for group work for a speaking class. The class is divided into groups of three or four, depending on the number of sections in that particular unit. The instructor assigns each group a section to study (keeping an equal number of groups studying a particular section). For example, a class of thirty-six working on a unit of *Nucleus* with three sections would have four groups of three students studying Section 1, four groups of three studying Section 2 and four groups studying Section 3. The instructor makes it clear that everyone in each group is responsible for knowing the material in that section—vocabulary, phrase and sentence patterns, pronunciation. The students in the group study their particular section, drawing upon the resources of the group to figure out definitions, to come up with additional examples of grammatical patterns, to check for correct pronunciation and intonation. Only when the combined resources of the group cannot figure out a problem should students appeal to the instructor for help. Furthermore, the instructor must make it clear that the class is first and foremost a *speaking* class; at no time should students be allowed to simply memorize the material found in the text. The vocabulary and sentence patterns are important, but they are speaking stimuli only. To ensure the speaking focus, the instructor should circulate throughout the classroom, soliciting conversation, giving aid as necessary and pointing out the important elements in each section that group members should focus on. When the original groups finish studying, they split to form new groups. The new groups are made up of individuals who studied different sections within the unit: one person studied Section 1, another, Section 2, the third, Section 3. Each person then proceeds to teach his colleagues his section, explaining the concepts, vocabulary and grammatical patterns found there. (This is why it is important for the instructor to point out the essential elements of a section to focus on, particularly early in a term when students are unfamiliar with the method and the book.) The time factor for the method can vary, both with the original groups and the split groups, depending on the complexity of the material, the level of the class and the degree of emphasis on particular concepts the instructor wishes to place on a unit. At GSELC, generally two days are allotted per unit, one for the original groups and one for the split groups.

Supplementary Activities

A language class will eventually get tired of any single activity that is pushed too far, hence a number of supplementary exercises have been incorporated into the curriculum. After the completion of each *Nucleus* unit, for example, we have found that a quick (20 minute) review by the instructor with the whole class is very useful. This can consist mainly of questions from the students to clarify problems they found during their study. Pronunciation drill is also used, focusing specifically on troublesome words and sounds as they are encountered in the units. "Free" discussions occur once a week using maps or picture cards as stimulus: students are divided into small groups to talk together, using the new material they studied in the *Nucleus* unit. The class has also made use of brief (3 to 7 minute) presentations. Particularly after some rhetorical form has been learned, e.g., *process* in Units 8 and 11, students give short process descriptions to the class of some elementary experiment.

The method of group work described above was devised specifically around *Nucleus* although it is equally applicable to any text whose chapters can be utilized as self-contained units. However, it should be kept in mind that to use the method effectively, the instructor must accomplish two things. First, he must 'sell' the students on the method. With its design of small groups in which every individual is responsible for teaching his fellows, the method demands a great deal of student initiative and effort. It is a long way from traditional language learning, and an approach so radical can be rejected by students if they are not convinced of its efficacy. Secondly, the instructor must be willing to relinquish some of the control he has over the class. It can be a very noisy classroom and, often, not just a little confusing. The advantages, however, are well worth the noisy classroom. In the case of GSELC, we have been able to adapt a grammar for the speaking class to get at more EST—oriented material. Additionally, it is possible to manage large speaking classes by utilizing the abilities of the students, minimizing the problems inherent in a situation of one instructor and thirty students. □

CULTURES IN CONFLICT

by Douglas Mcgrath
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ESL teachers need an insight into the problems of acculturation faced by their students because the students' attitudes and feelings directly affect their classroom performance. Their initial excitement starts to wear off as culture stress begins to affect their lives during the study period. Teachers need to be sensitive to these problems of culture conflict in order to help the students ease the transition into a new culture with a minimum of stress. Here at the English Language Center at the University of South Florida the problems of Middle Eastern students have concerned us especially because many of our students have come from that region. My years of study and residence in two Middle Eastern countries have given me an insight into the cultural background of the students and the potential for cultural conflicts that may occur. I hope that all ESL teachers will benefit from these experiences and observations that I wish to share. I will cite some specific examples and make some general statements based on my experience and research in the areas of Middle East Studies and ESL methods.

At first, most of our students are excited about their new surroundings when they arrive in Tampa to begin intensive English study. In general they adjust well to their new environment. Some, however, have returned home because of homesickness, while others have adopted western ways and neglected their former culture. In fact, they enjoy their newly found pleasures to the detriment of their studies. Culture shock can cause students to withdraw as they go through a period of orientation to the values of the United States in the light of their own cultural system. Conversely, cultural conflict can lead to a rapid attempt to assimilate our culture, both the good and the bad.

This cultural conflict has been going on in the Middle East for some time now. Modernization has already exposed the students to some aspects of western culture, particularly science and technology. Modernist writers and thinkers in the Middle East consider western science to be a necessity for their countries, and the students come to the U.S. seeking this knowledge. However, contrary to the current of westernization and reform in the students' home countries, there is a resurgence of traditional Islamic values. Many leaders now call for a return to the basic faith and value system of Islam. The students bring this conflict in values with them when they come here for ESL. They feel obligated to hold on to some aspects of their religious ritual. For example, our students asked for and got a free period for group prayer on Friday. This small concession improved student morale because they realized that we cared about their culture and value system. Islam definitely encourages education. For this reason we are not overly concerned if our Middle Eastern students miss a few minutes for prayer. The Koran, the holy book of Islam says, "For God does not change whatever is in a people until they change what is within themselves." (Koran 13:10) If students seem to lose motivation, one can always remind them of what their own religious tradition has to say about gaining knowledge and improving oneself. Even the most conservative Muslims who come here to study are eager to learn. A basic understanding of some of the specific points of cultural interference will help these students avoid potential problems and get the most out of their experience.

Muslims are forbidden to eat pork. This strict dietary law may cause problems for newly arrived students who cannot recognize pork—never having seen it. Pork and pigs should not be mentioned in conversation or lessons, and pork should never be offered to Middle Eastern students. Students may wish to know which food terms refer to pork. When our students asked about this subject, an Arabic speaking faculty member introduced the students to various food service facilities and stores and explained the meanings of the various food terms.

Many Muslims fast during the daylight hours for one month each year—the holy month of Ramadan. They cannot eat, drink any liquids, or smoke during the daytime. Only those who are sick or who are traveling can claim exemption. Students will appear tired and irritable during this period because they usually stay up all night in order to eat and pray. Ramadan gives the students a chance to reaffirm their own cultural values. Our students put great emphasis on their special activities during Ramadan. It is their defense against "anomie," a feeling of not confortably belonging in one social group or the other." (Lambert, p. 179) The daily fast and nightly feast help the students maintain important links to their home culture. Teachers need an extra measure of patience during this time because students may regress.

The status of women is another concern for those dealing with Middle Eastern students. Islamic reformers have done much to liberate women; however, traditional attitudes linger on, and in some cases the rising tide of conservatism and Islamic nationalism have eroded these gains. The result is that male students may have difficulty following orders from female teachers and administrators. Female teachers and administrators should establish authority from the first day of contact, remaining firm at all times. One must avoid the temptation to shout at the students. Once I observed a teacher trainee shouting at a group of Saudi men; the result was that she lost control of the group, which had begun to make fun of her. Teachers need to realize that the students may never have been exposed to a female authority figure before.

The American custom of dating is a mystery to newly arrived students from the Middle East. A few will catch on quickly, and their command of spoken English will improve dramatically as a result. Others will remain aloof and will feel offended by the apparent aggressiveness of U.S. women.

Cleanliness is very important to Muslims. They are required to wash before reciting the daily prayers; however, because of the scarcity of water in their home countries, they tend to shower and bathe less often than Americans do. Also, they are not familiar with deodorant; in its place they wash their hands and face with cologne. This measure does not work very well in Florida. Apparently the dry climate of the Middle East prevents any problems from occuring before the students arrive here. My own experience has indicated that a discrete word to one or two individuals is the best way for a teacher to handle the situation. One should never address a large group on this subject.

Differences in proxemics and body language have the potential to cause conflict. Middle Easterners stand closer to one another than Westerners do, and members of the same sex often hold hands or walk arm-in-arm. Such behavior is normal and does not imply anything irregular.

Punctuality is a problem for students and their teachers. A student may come to an eight o'clock appointment or class at eight-fifteen or eight-thirty. Also, any business scheduled for today can be left for tomorrow if not completed.

Most ESL students undergo a period of disorientation as they reevaluate the cultures of the host country and their own country. Properly informed teachers can forestall potential problems if they are aware of cultural differences and areas of conflict while remaining sensitive to the ethnic values of the students in their classes. □

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ADDING SIGHT & SOUND TO COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTION: INTERACTIVE VIDEO

by Kearney Rietmann
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Most people in education and training have had at least an introduction to the world of computers and advanced video technology. They may not have bought their own computer yet, or collected a library of their favorite films for a video system. But, if only from advertising, they know about the engaging fun of computer games, the possibilities for showing commercially made films in their homes, and the chance to record television programs so that they may never miss an episode of their favorite series again.

Now a new media system called interactive video brings advanced technology to the classroom, combining the liveliness, interest, and immediate feedback of computer assisted instruction with the visual capacity of video.

The System

Interactive video equipment, or hardware, is made up of two components. One is a microcomputer, like an Apple computer, which looks like a portable television set with a typewriter connected at the front. The other component is a videotape or videodisc system such as those made by Sony or Panasonic (Thomas, 1981).

The instructional program, or software, combines a narrated video film with a computer program to present an education or training course. A number of such software programs have been developed for education and training. One program, developed at the Chevron USA, Richmond Refinery in Richmond, California, will be described in this paper.

How the System Operates

The interactive video system is controlled by a computer program which first presents a section of a training film for the learner to listen to and watch on the microcomputer screen. Then, when a specified part of the film is reached, the computer stops the video system and replaces the pictures on the screen with a display of text. The display introduces an exercise which might, for example, quiz the learner on the training segment just shown. The learner reads the exercise and responds by typing in answers on the computer keyboard. Then, depending on the answers typed in, the program replays the film or advances to the next appropriate section of the course.

A model training course developed at the Richmond Refinery provides an example of how the system works. The program begins with a video film of an instructor showing how to fill in a form to carry out a safety procedure. The form and the sequence of steps for filling it out are shown and explained verbally by the instructor. Then, at the end of the demonstration, the computer is programmed to stop the film and display written questions about the procedure on the screen. The learner, in response, types in answers on the keyboard. If all the answers are right, the computer program moves on to the next step in the training module. However, if the learner misses a question, the program branches to the section of the tape corresponding to the questions the learner missed. For instance, the learner may have correctly answered questions on steps one and two of the procedure, but missed those on step three. The incorrect answers automatically put on the screen again the part of the program for step three. Then, once the learner has reviewed the procedure and answered the questions correctly, the program moves on to another training segment.

Interactive Video and English Language Teaching

For English language learners, the most important aspect of the interactive video system is the capacity for combining sight and sound audio-visual features with step by step programmed instruction. For both beginning and advanced learners, courses designed for the system can present objects and actions (particularly those not usually found in a language classroom) and identify them verbally. Such courses can present a story or sequence of actions, stopping periodically to have the learners use the computer keyboard to type in summaries, answers to questions, or predictions about what will happen next. In an English for academic purposes course, programs can show students how to use the library and carry out research. For students of English for science and technology, the film and audio track can do such things as identify tools and equipment and describe how they are used. The system can show people giving and following instructions and demonstrating procedures. And, as often as they wish, the students can have the objects identified or the procedures demonstrated, because the system will patiently repeat any section of the program until it is completely understood.

Conclusion

Interactive video, a new combination of video and computer assisted instruction, has great potential as a tool for English language teachers. In the future

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TOPICS AND TECHNIQUES FOR DEVELOPING A CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNITY LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

by Trish Delamere and
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The communication-oriented ESL class for adult learners dictates that the teacher provide for a balanced interchange by assuming the role of a "language activity ringmaster" rather than that of a lecturer or prima donna. By creating an open environment for language interchange and by establishing the premises and order of the activities' stages, the instructor leads students to a point where interpersonal communication is absolutely necessary without the continued direct involvement of (or interruption by) him.

By combining the basic procedure for community language learning with the topics selected for cross-cultural discussion, a student-centered learning environment can be achieved. As Stevick writes, ". . . CLL has two main steps: *investment* and *reflection*. In the investment phase, the learner commits himself, as much as he is able and willing, as he engages in a conversation with other members of the learning community. In the reflection phase, the learner stands back and looks at what he, as a part of the community, has done in the investment phase. As he does so, he remains a member of the community." (Stevick: p. 126).

Over a period of several years of directing cross-cultural communication classes for adult students in intensive English programs, we have determined that the following topics meet the test of importance, communicative potential, and reliability in the English-speaking environment:

Specific Course Objective: To provide in-depth exposure to American behavior patterns, values, social relations, customs, and institutions; to provide discussion opportunities to compare/contrast the above-mentioned areas with the students' home cultural norms in a rational attempt to build an understanding of and respect for cultural diversity.

TOPICS:

a. Basic premises underlying U.S. Culture. (Hsu: 1969)
b. Understanding consumer rights.
c. The role(s) of women.
d. What makes Americans laugh?
e. Minorities.
f. Politics.
g. Marriage, Family, and Going it Single.
h. Traditional Social Values and the Contemporary Social Scene (living together, divorce, etc.).
i. American educational system.
j. Current Affairs: the American viewpoint versus the non-American viewpoint.
k. Advertising and the Media.
l. Risk-taking in the new culture.
m. Acceptable Social Behavior.

This sample listing excludes a full complement of sub-topics for brevity's sake. However, to provide readers with examples of related sub-topics, some of the components of (m)—Acceptable Social Behavior—are:

1. Table etiquette.
2. Coping with "pressure" salespersons.
3. Excusing yourself from the company of friends, hosts, or others.
4. Ingestion, digestion, and congestion.
5. Making and breaking business or personal dates.
6. Give me my SPACE but take your TIME.

The teacher's preparatory obligation is to develop introductory exercises—cross-cultural gambits—for securing the INVESTMENT of each student in a communicative process. The core activity should provide for discussion on the topic from the "American" point of view while providing for equivalent input from the students' home culture. Several suggested activities are summarized below:

1. **Comfort Bits.** Those sights, tastes, sounds, sensations, and items which provide each person with a personal aura of security, pleasure, and selfness. Their role in one's life becomes more evident when a person finds himself without them; for example, familiar sounds, the aroma of a favorite soap, the delivered newspaper, the flowers or shrubbery in the neighborhood, the way the bed feels at night.

The teacher sets the scene by mentioning that each student may feel a certain lacking—a sensation of sensory anomie—without knowing precisely what is causing it. "Comfort bits" as a concept is then defined. Thereafter, students *invest* in the activity by first making notes on a sheet containing the topics "Where is that color from home?" "A smell that is missing," "What I miss in the morning (afternoon, night)," "How I know that I don't belong here (yet!)," and "Things I should have brought with me but didn't." When the sheet is completed, students present their thoughts on one topic at a time, elaborating and discussing as urged to by others in the group. This leads to the addition of items by each student on the spur of the moment—things forgotten until mentioned by classmates—and brings *reflection* into the communicative arena.

2. **Action Line.** No city is without a newspaper column or radio program in which problems of the consumer or citizen are submitted in the hope that a solution will be provided. These community-service features of the media provide the format for in-class discussions based on the question, "What problems have you had this week in the community?" When a problem is mentioned, the teacher encourages students to suggest solutions (usually based on their prior experience in their own culture). After numerous potential solutions are posited, the teacher and well-informed students suggest solutions within the American context. These, then, are further discussed, leading invariably to more shared discussion of related and/or similar problems. Frequently, the problem is presented via a specific experience between a student and an American citizen.

3. **Site-Seeing.** An outreach activity, "site-seeing" requires that each student go to an area of community activity (shopping mall, park, etc.) with specific instructions to observe a particular facet of local color: fashion, eating habits, recreational pursuits, or male-female interaction may be the focus of observation. Students need only observe certain phenomena which have been previously selected in class as being worthy of investigation; it isn't necessary that they talk to people when "site-seeing." On a following day, students gather in the classroom to compare notes and discuss what they saw (or thought they saw). Often, the students will be asked to form a group conclusion or opinion regarding American cultural behavior patterns to close discussion on the issue.

These and similar techniques bring into play the essentials of communicative cause, first culture learning, new cultural awareness, group dynamics, and individual responsibility with students playing the dominant parts in all aspects of the community-learning enterprise. □

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ADDING SIGHT AND SOUND

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it may be possible to adapt computer games to language learning, to have students speak directly to their computer rather than use the keyboard, to have the computer check student pronunciation, or to provide access to library resources. The video systems and microcomputers are already on the market and teachers and students alike can look forward to new curriculum designed for the technology.